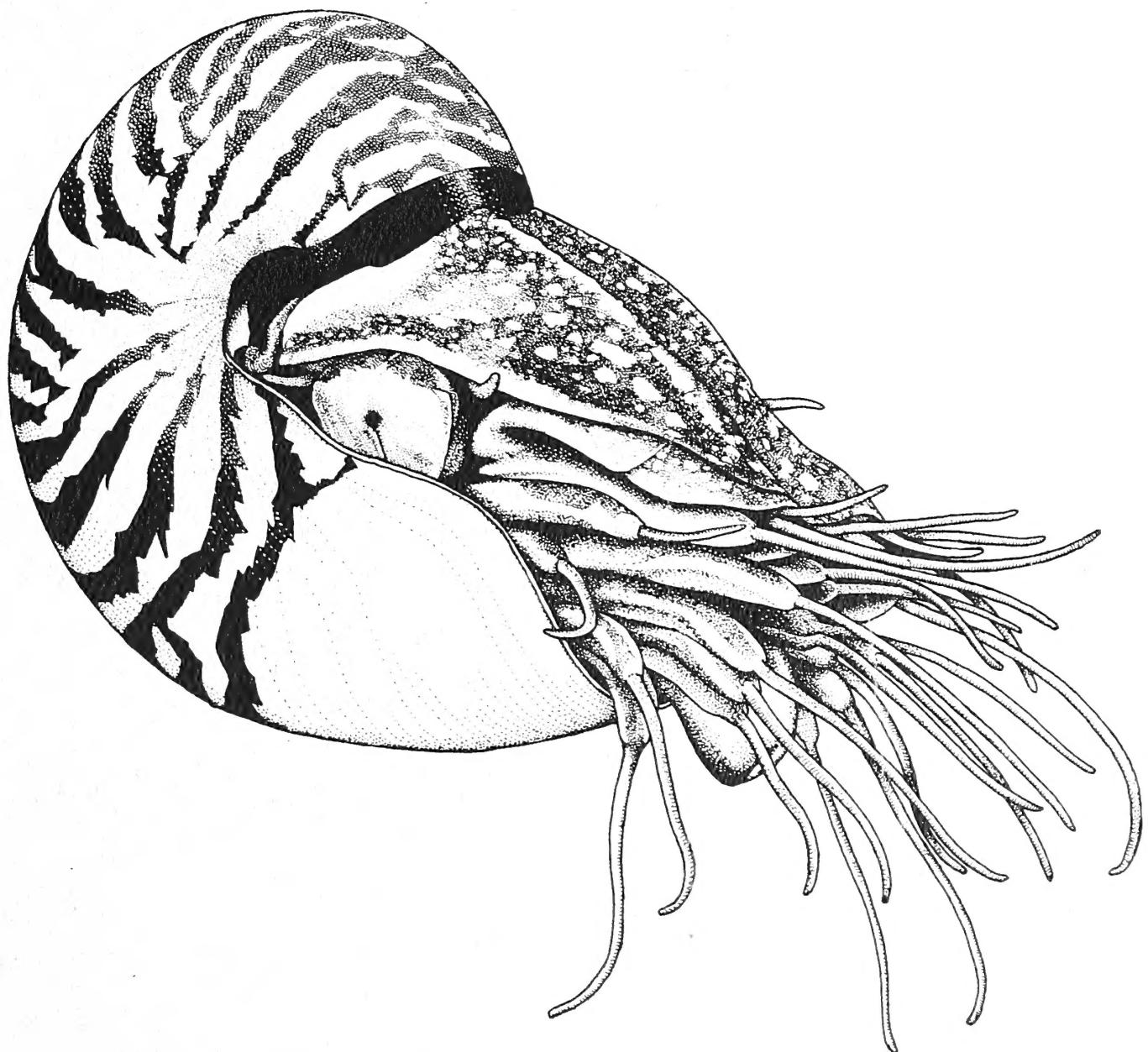


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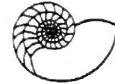
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The complete mitochondrial genome of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* G.B. Sowerby III, 1898 (Neogastropoda: Volutidae: Calliotectinae)

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ABSTRACT

We report the complete mitochondrial genome of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* G.B. Sowerby III, 1898, the type species of the monotypic genus *Neptuneopsis*. This mitogenome is 15,312 bp in length and has a GC content of 31.3%. The gene order of the 13 protein-coding genes, 2 ribosomal RNA genes, and 22 transfer RNA genes, is identical to that of most neogastropods other than of several conoidean taxa, which differ only in the location of one or more tRNA genes. The potential origin of replication is located in a 127 bp non-coding region between tRNA-Phe and COX3 that has a high A + T content (77.9%). Phylogenetic analyses using maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference with nucleotide sequences of all protein-coding and ribosomal genes show *Neptuneopsis* to be sister to the few volutid species for which complete or partial mitogenome data are available. *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* has an operculum and a triserial radula, while the other volutids in our analyses have lost the operculum and have a derived uniserial radula.

Keywords: Gastropoda, mitogenome, phylogeny, gene order

INTRODUCTION

The neogastropod family Volutidae comprises a group of predatory marine gastropods that inhabit sand and mud substrates from the intertidal zone to abyssal plains, from the tropics to polar seas. Like many neogastropod families, Volutidae has origins in the early Late Cretaceous (Cenomanian) (Stephenson, 1952; Pojarkova, 1984; Tracey et al., 1993; Fossilworks, 2019). The World Register of Marine Species (WoRMS, 2019) lists 1,640 living and fossil species-level taxa and 115 living and fossil genus-level taxa attributed to this family. Pilsbry and Olsson (1954) reviewed the early taxonomic history of Volutidae and partitioned the family into 12 subfamilies

and 8 tribes, acknowledging this to be a tentative effort. The most recent classification (Bouchet et al., 2017:349) recognizes 10 subfamilies (2 extinct) and 11 tribes.

Earlier classifications based on morphological and anatomical data (e.g., Thiele, 1929; Wenz, 1943) included Volutidae in the superfamily Volutoidea, together with the families Olividae, Mitridae, Turbinellidae, Harpidae, Marginellidae, and Cancellariidae, while subsequent classifications have variously distributed these families among the rachiglossan neogastropods (see Harasewych et al., 1997: fig. 2). The most recent classification (Bouchet et al., 2017: 349, 379) based on molecular data (Fedosov et al., 2015) includes only Volutidae and Cancellariidae in Volutoidea, with the remaining families either elevated to superfamilies or unassigned to superfamily.

The family Volutidae has been sparsely represented in morphological and molecular investigations of neogastropod phylogeny. In this study, we report the complete mitochondrial genome of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* G.B. Sowerby III, 1898, a member of the subfamily Calliotectinae. It represents the second complete mitogenome of a volutid to be determined. Features such as genome length and gene order are compared to those of other neogastropods, and the phylogenetic position of *Neptuneopsis* within Volutidae is inferred under both maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian frameworks based on mitochondrial protein-coding and RNA genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

DNA Extraction and Sanger Sequencing: Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted from a 40 mg section of proboscis wall obtained from an alcohol-preserved specimen of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* [Natal Museum, V1106; South Africa, South of Cape St. Blaize (34°47' S, 22°10' E), dredged in 97 m, Stn. A17383, NMDP, R/V AFRICANA, 6 May 1995] using the AutoGenprep 965 (Autogen, Holliston, MA, USA). Manufacturer-provided proteinase K (Autogen) was used for initial tissue lysis,

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which was run overnight at 56°C with continuous agitation. Portions of cytochrome *c* oxidase I (COXI) and 16S rRNA genes were PCR-amplified and Sanger-sequenced using the primers and protocols in Harasewych (2018). These two mitochondrial gene fragments were used as scaffolds for the assembly of the *N. gilchristi* mitogenome (see **Assembly** below).

Library Construction and Illumina Sequencing: Extracted gDNA was visualized on a 1.5% agarose gel, and quantified using a Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher, Pittsburg, PA). After quantification, gDNA was sonicated using the Covaris M220 with microtube-50 AFA fiber screw-caps (Covaris, Woburn, MA) targeted for 350bp fragments. Sonicated gDNA was then cleaned using Kapa Pure Beads (KAPA Biosystems, Wilmington, MA) at a 0.9X beads-to-sample ratio, which targeted fragments >250bp. Size-selected gDNA was then quantified with Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit, and the Agilent 2200 TapeStation (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA) was used to validate gDNA size selection.

Total gDNA libraries were prepared using the NEB-Next Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina together

with the NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA). Size selection of adaptor-ligated libraries (400–500 bp) and adaptor/PCR cleanups were performed using Kapa Pure Beads, and library size was validated with the Agilent 2200 Tape Station. Libraries were quantified using qPCR (ViiA 7, ThermoFisher) to ensure generation of adaptor-ligated libraries. A 4nM library concentration was denatured for clonal amplification and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA) with MiSeq Reagent Kit v3 at the Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History's Laboratories of Analytical Biology.

Assembly: Low quality reads were removed using TrimGalore v. 0.6.3 dev (<https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore>), with thresholds for minimum Phred scores set to 20 and minimum read lengths set to 20 bp. The *N. gilchristi* mitogenome was assembled using Geneious Prime® 2019.2.1 (<http://www.geneious.com>) using the following protocol: Sanger-sequenced COXI and 16S rRNA gene fragments were used as scaffolds using the “map to reference” tool with “minimum overlap identity” set to 98–99% and “minimum overlap” set to

Table 1. List of taxa used in phylogenetic analyses, their GenBank accession numbers, source of sequence data, and size of the entire mitogenome. Taxon names as well as their superfamily and family assignments have been updated according to WoRMS (2019).

* Indicates that only a partial mitogenome sequence was available.

Superfamily	Family	Taxon	GenBank No.	Source	length (bp)
OUTGROUPS - LITTORINIMORPHA					
Stromoidea	Strombidae	<i>Lobatus gigas</i>	NC_024932	Marques et al 2014	15,461
Naticoidea	Naticidae	<i>Naticarius hebraeus</i>	NC_028002	Osca et al. 2015	15,384
Tonnoidea	Cymatiidae	<i>Monoplex parthenopeus</i>	NC_013247	Cunha et al. 2009	15,270
Tonnoidea	Charoniidae	<i>Charonia lampas</i>	NC_037188	Cho et al. 2017	15,330
Tonnoidea	Cassidae	<i>Galeodea echinophora</i>	NC_028003	Osca et al. 2015	15,388
NEOGASTROPODA					
Volutoidea	Cancellariidae	<i>Bivetiella cancellata</i>	NC_013241	Cunha et al. 2009	16,648
Volutoidea	Volutidae	<i>Neptuneopsis gilchristi</i>	MN125492	This study	15,312
Volutoidea	Volutidae	<i>Cymbium olla</i>	NC_013245	Cunha et al. 2009	15,375
Volutoidea	Volutidae	<i>Alcithoe lutea</i>	JN182219	Hills et al. 2011	7,689 *
Volutoidea	Volutidae	<i>Alcithoe benthicola</i>	JN182217	Hills et al. 2011	7,692 *
Volutoidea	Volutidae	<i>Amoria hunteri</i>	JN182226	Hills et al. 2011	7,728 *
Volutoidea	Volutidae	<i>Cymbiola pulchra</i>	JN182216	Hills et al. 2011	7,733 *
Muricoidea	Muricidae	<i>Bolinus brandaris</i>	NC_013250	Cunha et al. 2009	15,380
Muricoidea	Muricidae	<i>Rapana venosa</i>	NC_011193	Sun & Yang 2014	15,271
Muricoidea	Muricidae	<i>Reishia clavigera</i>	NC_010090	Ki et al. 2010	15,285
Olivoidea	Ancellariidae	<i>Amalda northlandica</i>	NC_014403	McComish et al. 2010	15,354
Unassigned	Babyloniidae	<i>Babylonia areolata</i>	NC_023080	Chen & Ke, unpublished	15,445
Unassigned	Babyloniidae	<i>Babylonia lutosa</i>	NC_028628	Xiong et al. 2015	15,346
Buccinoidea	Columbellidae	<i>Columbella adansonii</i>	KP716637	Osca et al. 2015	16,272
Buccinoidea	Nassariidae	<i>Tritia reticulatus</i>	NC_013248	Cunha et al. 2009	15,271
Buccinoidea	Buccinidae	<i>Neptunea arthritica</i>	KU246047	Hao et al. 2016	15,256
Buccinoidea	Buccinidae	<i>Buccinum undatum</i>	NC_040940	Jonsson et. al. 2019	15,265
Conoidea	Conidae	<i>Californiconus californicus</i>	NC_032377	Uribe et al. 2016	15,444
Conoidea	Conidae	<i>Conus borgesii</i>	NC_013243	Cunha et al. 2009	15,536
Conoidea	Conidae	<i>Conus textile</i>	NC_008797	Bandyopadhyay et al. 2008	15,562
Conoidea	Terebridae	<i>Oxymeris dimidiata</i>	NC_013239	Cunha et al. 2009	16,513
Conoidea	Fussiturridae	<i>Fusiturris similis</i>	NC_013242	Cunha et al. 2009	15,595
Conoidea	Turridae	<i>Iotyrris cerithiformis</i>	NC_008098	Bandyopadhyay et al. 2006	15,380
Conoidea	Turridae	<i>Gemmuloborsonia moosai</i>	NC_038183	Uribe et al. 2018	15,541

30–40 bp. An initial iterate, using the “fine tuning” option tab, was set to 5X to confirm adequate initial assembly to scaffolds. The 16S rRNA fragment did not scaffold well, and, therefore, only COXI was used for subsequent assembly iterations. Three–five iterations of 3X and 40X were needed before an assembled contig of >15kb, the mitogenome size-approximation based on related taxa, was acquired. The size and sequence of the non-coding region, between the tRNA-Phe and COX3, was confirmed using standard PCR and Sanger sequencing, with primers derived from within the flanking genes: NEPTtrn-Phe F – 5' GGT GGT AAA CAT ATC TTA AGA TAC G – 3' and NEPTcox3 R – 5' AAC TAA GTG GAA TGG ATT ACG TCT C.

Genome Annotation: Mitochondrial elements were annotated using MITOS (Bernt et al., 2013), ARWEN (Laslett and Canbäck, 2008) and the ORF finder in Geneious.

Phylogenetic Analyses: All 13 protein-coding and both ribosomal genes from selected neogastropod and out-group mitochondrial genomes (Table 1) were used to determine the phylogenetic relationships of *N. gilchristi*. Gene alignments were run in MAFFT v7 (Katoh et al., 2019) and ambiguous positions removed using GBlocks, v.0.91b (Castresana, 2000). The best-fit evolutionary models and partition scheme were selected using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017) through IQ-TREE v.1.6.1 (Nguyen et al., 2014) with the option

Table 2. Position (start, stop), strand direction (+/-) and lengths (bp) of the genes in the mitochondrial genome of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* G.B. Sowerby III, 1898 [15,312 bp; GenBank MN125492], initiation and termination codons (Init/Term) for protein-coding genes, as well as their amino acid sequence lengths (Laa). Standard abbreviations for protein coding genes are used. Both three and one letter abbreviations are listed for tRNA's, along with the codon used. The numbers of intergenic nucleotides (Ign) are shown. Negative numbers indicate overlap of genes.

Gene	Start	Stop	Strand	Directionn	Length (bp)	Init /Term	Laa	Ign
COX1	1	1,542	+		1,542		513	11
COX2	1,554	2,240	+		687		228	-3
tRNA-Asp (D) (gtc)+	2,238	2,308	+		71			0
ATP8	2,309	2,467	+		159	ATG/TAA	52	5
ATP6	2,473	3,168	+		696	ATG/TAG	231	31
tRNA-Met (M) (cat)*	3,266	3,200	-		67			-3
tRNA-Tyr (Y) (gta)+	3,330	3,264	-		67			31
tRNA-Cys (C) (gea)*	3,395	3,332	-		64			-2
tRNA-Trp (W) (tea)+	3,461	3,394	-		68			-2
tRNA-Gln (Q) (ttg)+	3,525	3,460	-		66			0
tRNA-Gly (G) (tcc)+	3,594	3,526	-		69			-2
tRNA-Glu (E) (ttc)+	3,659	3,593	-		67			0
12S rDNA	3,660	4,615	+		956			0
tRNA-Val (V) (tac)+	4,616	4,683	+		68			0
16S rDNA	4,684	6,035	+		1,352			0
tRNA-Leu (L1)(tag)+	6,036	6,106	+		71			0
tRNA-Leu (L2)(taa)*	6,107	6,175	+		69			0
NAD1	6,176	7,117	+		942	ATG/TAA	313	0
tRNA-Pro (P) (tgg)*	7,118	7,189	+		72			0
NAD6	7,190	7,690	+		501	ATG/TAA	166	5
CYT B	7,696	8,835	+		1140	ATG/TAA	379	6
tRNA-Ser(S2)(tga)+	8,842	8,909	+		68			10
tRNA-Thr (T) (tgt)*	8,984	8,920	-		65			9
NAD4L	8,994	9,290	+		297	ATG/TAG	98	17
NAD4	9,308	10,657	+		1350	ATT/TAG	449	2
tRNA-His (H)(gtg)+	10,660	10,726	+		67			26
NAD5	10,753	12,447	+		1,695	ATT/TAA	564	10
tRNA-Phe (F)(gaa)+	12,458	12,5244	+		67			127
COX3	12,652	13,431	+		780	ATG/TAA	259	28
tRNA-Lys (K) (ttt)+	13,460	13,528	+		69			4
tRNA-Ala (A) (tgc)*	13,533	13,600	+		68			11
tRNA-Arg (R)(tcg)*	13,612	13,680	+		69			6
tRNA-Asn (N)(gtt)*	13,687	13,754	+		68			8
tRNA-Ile (I) (gat)+	13,763	13,830	+		68			3
NAD3	13,834	14,187	+		354	ATG/TAG	118	0
tRNA-Ser (S1)(gtc)*	14,188	14,255	+		68			0
NAD2	14,256	29	+		1086	ATG/TAA	361	-29

For tRNA's * indicates that ARWEN the same as MITOS.

For tRNA's + indicates that ARWEN selected over MITOS.

“-m TESTONLYMERGE” and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC).

Phylogenetic analyses, using a data matrix concatenated in Geneious that included 12,636 nucleotide positions, were performed with MrBayes v3.1.2 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003) running four MCMC chains for two million generations, sampling every 1,000 and discarding the first 25% as burn-in. Convergence of the trees was determined using TRACER v1.6 (Rumbaut et al., 2007); and IQ-TREE v1.6.1 using a combination of rapid hill-climbing and stochastic perturbation methods with a total of 1,000 pseudoreplicates of bootstrap to assess robustness of the inferred tree.

RESULTS

Genome Content and Organization: The Illumina sequencing run produced a total of 51,544,678 reads for this species. After filtering and removing low-quality data, 50,964,146 reads (Phred scores ≥ 20 , length ≥ 20 bp) remained with an average length of 193.2 bp (SD 77.8). Of these 12,954 mapped to the mitochondrial genome. Coverage ranged from 115X to 345X per site (mean = 213.5; SD = 38.1).

The mitochondrial genome of *Netuneopsis gilchristi* reconstructed from these data is a double-stranded circular molecule 15,312 bp in length (GenBank Acc. No. MN125492), composed of 31.0% A, 37.7% T, 15.8% C, and 15.6% G. It contains 13 protein-coding genes, two ribosomal RNA genes and 22 tRNA genes (Table 2, Fig. 1). Of these, 29 genes are coded on the heavy strand (+ strand) and only 8 tRNA genes, including the cluster MYCWQGE (tRNA-M, tRNA-Y, tRNA-C, tRNA-W, tRNA-Q, tRNA-G, and tRNA-E) and tRNA-T are coded on the light strand (– strand). The gene order in *N. gilchristi* corresponds to the consensus gene order shared by most caenogastropod (Osca et al., 2015: 122) and neogastropod (Cunha et al., 2009: 210, Fig. 1) mitogenomes. Known exceptions to this gene order are limited to unrelated tRNA translocations and inversions within Conoidea (Cunha et al., 2009; Uribe et al., 2016: fig. 1; Uribe et al., 2018: fig. 2).

Gene overlaps total 41 bp at 6 gene junctures, the longest (29 bp) between NAD2 and COX1. There are 19 intergenic regions (350 bp in total, 2.3 % of the mitogenome) ranging from 2 to 127 bp, the largest between tRNA-Phe and COX3 (Table 2).

The potential origin of replication (POR) is located in a 127 bp non-coding region between tRNA-Phe and COX3, which has a high A + T content (77.9%).

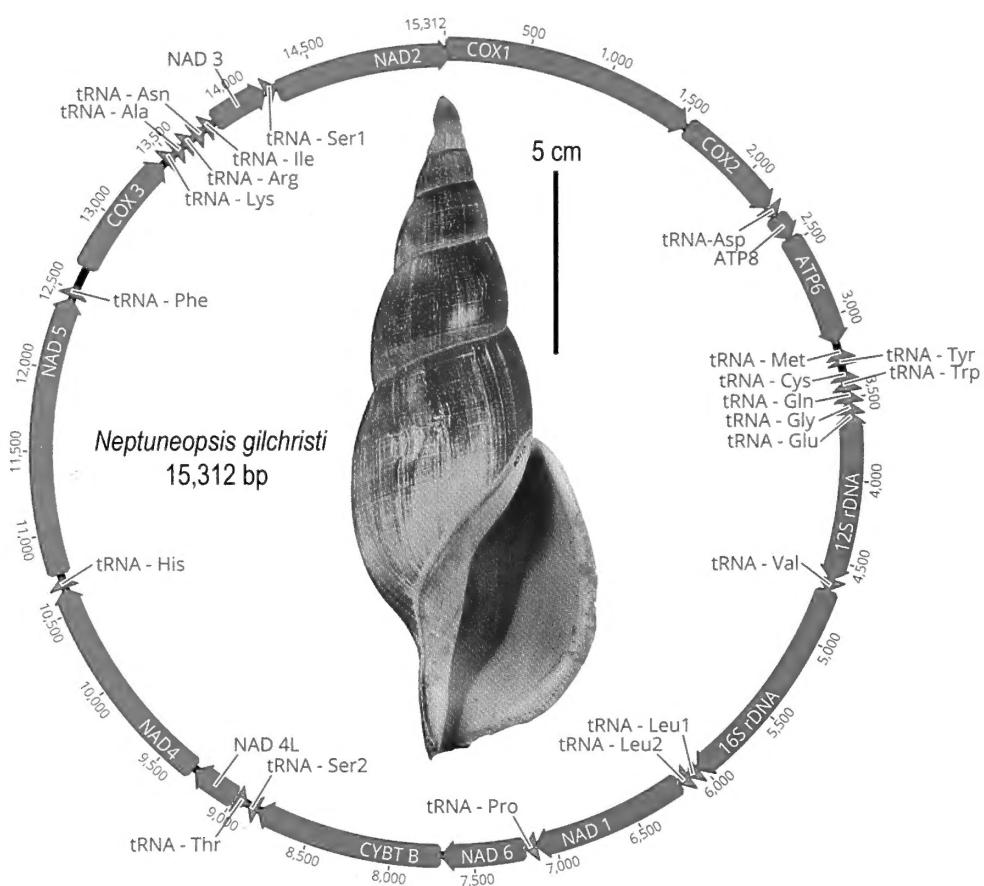


Figure 1. Map of the mitochondrial genome of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* (GenBank Acc. no. MN125492). Arrows indicate the direction of transcription. Protein-coding genes are in green, ribosomal genes in red and transfer RNA genes in purple.

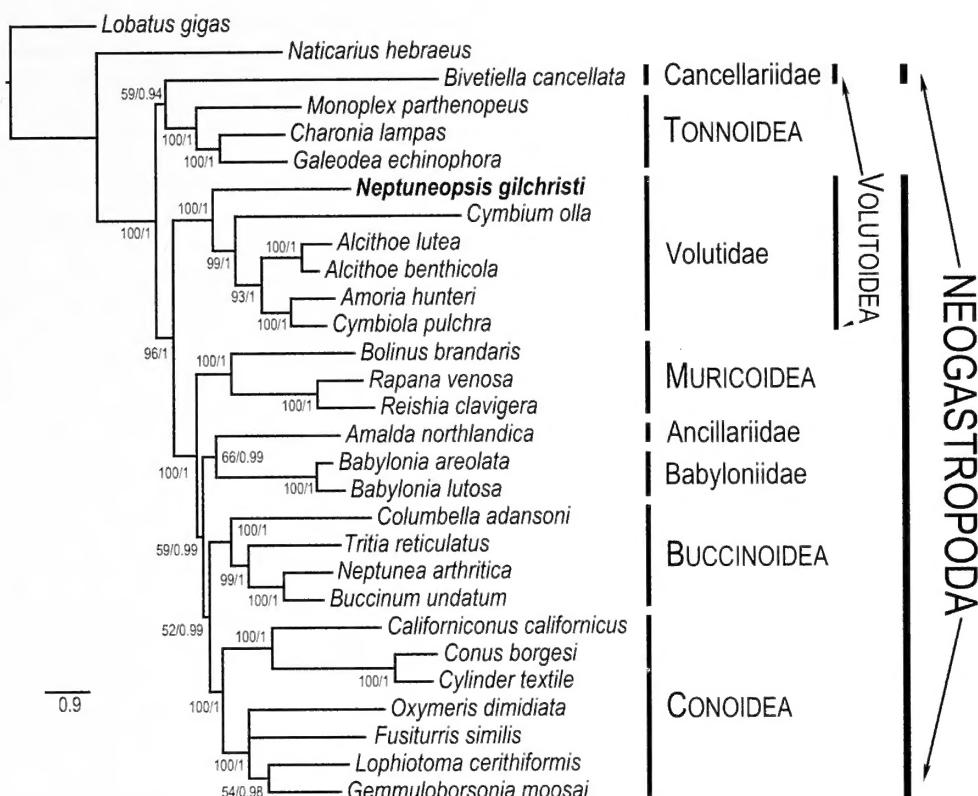


Figure 2. Phylogenetic relationships of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* based on maximum likelihood and Bayesian analyses of nucleotide sequences of mitochondrial protein-coding and ribosomal genes. Branch support shown as maximum likelihood bootstrap values (when ≥ 50) / Bayesian posterior probability (when ≥ 0.7).

Protein coding genes comprise 73.3% of the entire genome (11,229 bp). The most common start codon is ATG, occurring in all genes except ND4 and ND5, which use the ATT start codon. The stop codon TAA is used in nine genes and the TAG stop codon in four genes. Both the large ribosomal gene (16S rRNA, 1352 bp) and the small ribosomal gene (12S rRNA, 956 bp) (total = 2,308 bp, 15.1% of mitogenome) occur on the heavy strand. Of the 22 tRNAs, 14 are on the heavy strand, 8 on the light strand. The total length of the tRNAs is 1496 bp, 9.8% of mitogenome.

Phylogenetic Analyses: Phylogenetic analyses of the concatenated nucleotide sequences for all protein-coding and ribosomal RNA genes using both maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference each produced a single tree that was fully resolved, and in which most nodes were well supported. The two trees were congruent except for the relative positions of *Oxymeris* and *Fusiturris*, among the non-conid Conoidea (Figure 2).

DISCUSSION

The mitogenome of *Neptuneopsis gilchristi* (15,312 bp) is 63 bp shorter than that of *Cymbium olla*, the only other volutid for which a complete mitogenome is known. The order and strand orientation of the mitochondrial genes is

the same for both species, and also matches the portion ($>7,600$ bp) of the mitogenome between ND3 and tRNA-Leu2 that has been reported for 11 species of *Alcithoe*, *Amoria hunteri*, and *Cymbiola pulchra* (Hills et al., 2011: Table 1, Fig. 1). The ND2 gene overlaps the COX1 gene by 29 bp for all volutid species reported to date except *Cymbium olla*, which has a 17 bp gap between the two genes.

Analyses using both maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference (Figure 2) strongly support the monophyly of the superfamilies Conoidea, Buccinoidea, Muricoidea, and Tonoidea. The family Volutidae is also recovered as monophyletic with strong support, but not the superfamily Volutoidea, as the sole cancellariid in the dataset appears more closely related to Tonoidea, although without significant support. A similar result was obtained by Cunha et al. (2009: fig. 3) and Osca et al. (2015: fig. 2) when analyzing nucleotide sequences of complete mitochondrial genomes. The monophyly of Neogastropoda has often been contradicted in multiple molecular studies (for review, see Ponder et al., 2008: 368), as Tonoidea typically are included among Neogastropoda (Osca et al., 2015; Strong et al., 2019).

Neptuneopsis emerges as the earliest branching of the few volutid taxa for which data on a significant portion of the mitogenome are available. This is concordant with relationships based on morphology, as *Neptuneopsis* is the

only taxon within this study that retains an operculum and a triserial radular ribbon, both considered plesiomorphic features within Volutidae (Pilsbry and Olsson, 1954). Of the remaining volutids, *Amoria hunteri* and *Cymbiola pulchra*, members of separate tribes within the subfamily Amoriinae, emerge as sister taxa, as do the congeners *Alcithoe lutea* and *A. benthicola*.

However, the two species of *Alcithoe* do not form a clade with *Cymbium olla*, although all three are classified in the subfamily Cymbiinae. It is unclear if this discrepancy may be due to the comparison of complete versus partial mitogenomes. Cunha and colleagues (2009: 210) noted the uneven contributions of various genes to phylogenetic resolution, with COX2, ATP6, and NAD4 being rated the highest, and COXI and ATP8 the lowest. We regard this mitogenome as being an incremental contribution toward a better understanding of the evolutionary history of Volutidae.

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Post-glacial dispersal patterns of *Pyganodon grandis* (Bivalvia: Unionidae) into the lower Great Lakes watershed

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ABSTRACT

Pyganodon grandis (Say, 1829) and other unionid mussels arrived in the Laurentian Great Lakes only after the last glacial maximum in North America. The mussel assemblage is thought to have entered Lake Erie as a wave of expansion from west to east, and moved upstream within tributary rivers. A similar process for most mussels occurred in Lake Ontario, but by eastern species, as the two lake systems are separated by Niagara Falls. Only *P. grandis* is abundant in both lakes. We applied variation in a fragment of the mtDNA Carboxylase I (COI) gene to identify potential historical paths for *P. grandis* to enter these watersheds. Nearly complete monomorphy characterized the Lake Ontario population for the most common Lake Erie allele, which is concordant with sequential founder effects across the Great Lakes. A Φ_{ST} including populations from both Lakes, the intervening Niagara River, tributaries of Lake Erie, and additional samples from below the Laurentian Divide, was 0.10. The southern tributaries of Lake Erie had greater genetic diversity, although few haplotypes were shared among regions or even neighboring streams. Tributary and lake populations differed significantly, yet variation across this divide was not significant. This pattern likely arose from stream capture of upper Ohio River tributaries that once flowed south, and then population isolation, with upstream dispersal from Lake Erie limited to the lower reaches.

INTRODUCTION

Population structure and historical biogeography of freshwater mussels (Unionidae) is often difficult to assess because current populations may be reduced and disjunct (Berg et al., 2007; Zanatta and Harris, 2013), causing many species to be endangered at a state or federal level (Haag and Williams, 2014; Johnson et al., 2018). Common species may therefore be more useful to trace distribution patterns (Mynsberge et al., 2009), especially where genetic markers are applied (Elderkin et al. 2007, 2008; Hewitt et al., 2018; Mathias et al., 2018). Previously, mtDNA sequence data were generated for one such common species, *Pyganodon grandis* (Say, 1829), in Canada (Cyr et al., 2007; Doucet-Beaupré et al., 2012), and across the upper Mississippi watershed and into Lake Erie. Low levels of spatial variation were identified across

these once glaciated regions, except for one possible isolated northern glacial refugium in Minnesota that remained unconnected to subsequent colonization of the Great Lakes (Krebs et al. 2015). As *P. grandis* is thought to be a host generalist, this mussel likely followed diverse fishes that spread rapidly into new watersheds (Bernatchez and Wilson, 1998), and it persisted through ecosystem changes that later eliminated or nearly eliminated a great many other species (Zanatta et al., 2015). While *P. grandis* tends to be a small component of mussel assemblages in flowing waters, its ability to colonize small ponds and headwaters (Smith et al., 2002) presents opportunities to move between watersheds.

Of the Unionidae, only *P. grandis* is abundant in both lakes Erie and Ontario. Lake Ontario is separated from Lake Erie to the northeast by the 60 km long Niagara River. The lake level falls from 174 m to about 76 m in this short distance with a 70 m drop at Niagara Falls and a series of 5 gorges proceeding down river, forming an effective ecological barrier. The lower elevation coupled with a slight increase in latitude make the regions ecologically similar except that Lake Erie is shallower to the west and Lake Ontario to the east (Bossenbroek et al., 2018; Hoffman et al. 2018). The Appalachian Mountains extend below the lakes forming a sharp front facing east, and the Allegheny Plateau to the west, which form an eastern biogeographic divide. More subtly, a low ridgeline developed just south of Lake Erie, separating the south-flowing Ohio River watershed from the Great Lakes, which all empty north through Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence Seaway (Lewis et al., 2012). Numerous Lake Erie tributaries possess a diverse yet varied mussel assemblage above a low fall line that forms as the rivers descend the Allegheny Plateau (Lyons et al., 2007), causing upstream (Krebs et al., 2010a, 2013) and near-lake (Crail et al., 2011; Zanatta et al., 2015; Krebs et al., 2018) assemblages to differ. Nonetheless, mixing of various aquatic groups can occur (Rahel, 2007).

We followed up those earlier studies to investigate two knowledge gaps in the genetic structure in *P. grandis* within the Great Lakes: what was the likely source of populations in Lake Ontario on the eastern edge of the St. Lawrence-Great

Lakes biogeographical province (Haag, 2012), and are Lake Erie tributary population related more to the lake populations or to populations in adjacent lotic watersheds. This latter question considers possible historical connectivity between tributaries separated by the Laurentian Divide. Separately, given that an enigmatic and highly divergent (by 9% of nucleotide bases) haplotype form exists within some *P. grandis* populations (Cyr et al., 2007; Doucet-Beaupré et al., 2012), we look at how new data can explain whether these variant haplotypes are of hybrid origin or are historic within the *Pyganodon* lineage and finally touch on how patterns of male-inherited mitochondrial variation contrast with patterns in the classically female-inherited form (Krebs, 2004).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Over many years, small numbers of individuals, as restricted by permits, were collected across various Ohio

streams (Figure 1) initially as whole specimens where *Pyganodon grandis* was common and later just mantle clips during mussel surveys within inlets and river mouths along the southern Great Lakes (Krebs et al., 2010a; Zanatta et al., 2015; Bossenbroek et al., 2018). Here we collated previously published CO1 sequence data from Lake Erie (N=245), regions west of Lake Erie (N=94), and the Niagara River (N=55) (Krebs et al., 2015), and generated new *P. grandis* CO1 sequences (Table 1) from the Lake Ontario region (N=66), Lake Erie tributary streams (N=87), and Ohio River tributary streams (N=20), along with 28 CO1 sequences of the male-inherited mitochondrial lineage.

Total DNA extraction, PCR methods and analyses were described previously for standard female-inherited CO1 barcode sequences and for a small sample of male-inherited sequences that were useful to confirm species identification where female sequences were highly variant

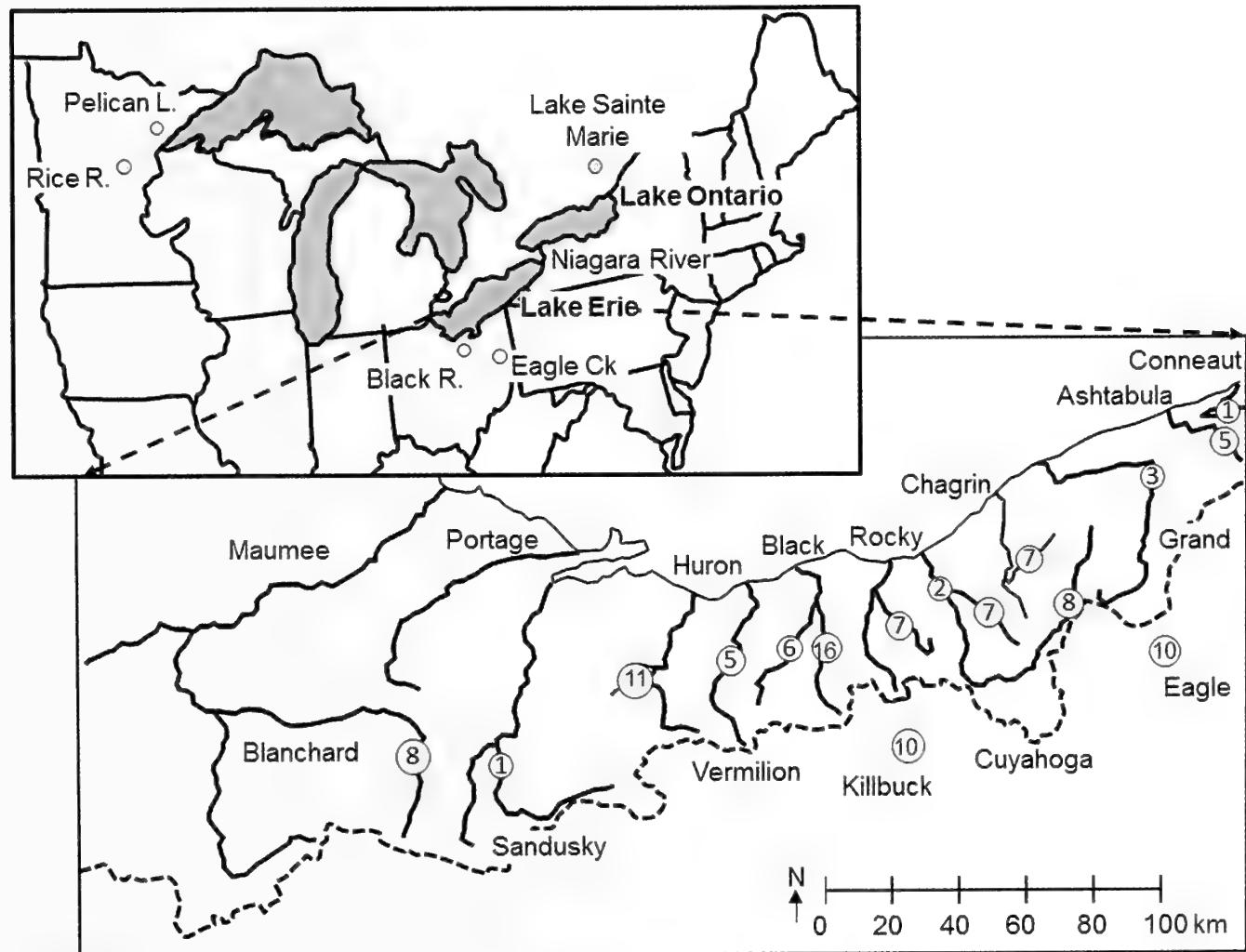


Figure 1. Sampling region of *P. grandis* for the present study, denoting the Great Lakes and five surrounding sites where rare anomalous Type A mitochondrial variants were recovered. The inset shows the rivers sampled with number of individuals sequenced for the various Ohio drainages of Lake Erie, and two additional streams, Eagle and Killbuck Creeks, which comprise part of the Ohio River headwaters. The Laurentian Divide separating these biogeographic regions is indicated by the dashed line.

Table 1. Genetic diversity in *P. grandis* across the five defined geographic areas, samples from within Lake Erie, the Niagara River, Lake Ontario, the Tributaries of Lake Erie (LE), and for samples from two headwater tributaries of the Ohio River, Eagle Creek and Kilbuck Creek in Ohio. Reported are sample size (N), allele number, polymorphic sites, haplotype diversity (H) or the likelihood that two sequences drawn at random will differ, π , the mean sequence variation among all haplotypes within a population, Θ_s , the estimation of $4N\mu$ based on the number of segregating sites, Θ_π , the estimation of $4N\mu$ based on nucleotide differences, and Tajima's *D*, a test of the difference between Θ_s and Θ_π , which is predicted to be equivalent under neutral evolution.

Region	N	Allele Number	Polymorphic sites	Diversity H	$\pi \times 100$	Θ_s	Θ_π	Tajima's D
Lake Erie	245	29	31	0.31 ± 0.04	0.085	5.10	0.534	-2.50***
Niagara R.	55	9	8	0.27 ± 0.08	0.057	1.74	0.362	-2.13**
Lake Ontario	66	4	5	0.12 ± 0.05	0.029	1.05	0.181	-1.90**
LE tributaries	87	28	72	0.77 ± 0.05	1.940	14.29	12.22	-0.48
LE tributaries ¹	78	24	22	0.72 ± 0.06	0.186	4.46	1.17	-2.23***
Ohio R. tributaries	20	6	61	0.73 ± 0.07	1.20	17.19	7.579	-2.27***
Ohio R. tributaries ¹	19	5	7	0.70 ± 0.08	0.316	2.00	1.988	-0.02

¹ results omitting the highly variant Type A haplotypes

** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001

(Krebs, 2004; Krebs et al., 2015). All haplotype identification codes correspond to the latter paper and Genbank (Table 1). Sequences of individuals were entered into DnaSP V 5.1 from which haplotype networks were constructed in Network V 4.6.1 (Röhl, 2004). Polymorphic sites, transitions, and transversions were weighted equally, although transitions were 6-fold more common and almost every variant was a silent site. A phylogeny was constructed in MEGA7 (v.7.0.26) under maximum likelihood using the Kimura algorithm. The tree topology was exported and drawn in FIGTREE (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>). To contrast biogeographic regions in an Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA), all Lake Erie sequences were pooled, and they were assessed against all samples from Lake Ontario, and all Lake Erie tributary rivers. The samples from below the Laurentian Divide were pooled as a separate group. Among these sets, pairwise Φ_{ST} analyses and a test of neutrality, i.e., Tajima's *D* (Tajima 1989), were run in ARLEQUIN version 3.5.1.2, using 30,000 permutations for tests of significance alone with mismatch analysis as a separate test of population expansion (Excoffier and Lischer, 2010). Tajima's *D* contrasts Θ_s , the estimation of $4N\mu$ based on the number of segregating sites, and Θ_π , the estimation of $4N\mu$ based on nucleotide differences, which are predicted to be the same under neutral evolution and a stable population size.

RESULTS

Expanding the CO1 data set for *P. grandis* to include Lake Ontario, Lake Erie tributaries and two streams south of the Laurentian Divide (Table 1) combined for 31 additional haplotypes based on just a short mtDNA sequence (Figure 2, accession numbers MN125095- MN125125). The Lake Ontario samples were almost monomorphic for the common haplotype, at 94% H1, with only two unique haplotypes collected and one other haplotype that was shared with the Niagara River samples. This common lake haplotype also was the most frequent one in streams, but at a frequency below 50%, making stream samples much

more genetically variable than lake samples. For other multicity haplotypes, most (6 of 8) occurred in only one stream, or only in lake samples (12 of 13 multicity haplotypes), while only 1 was found both in Lake Erie samples and in a tributary. Similarly, just one haplotype was shared between tributaries separated by the Laurentian Divide.

The extremely high frequency of one allele within the Great Lakes locations produced a small Φ_{ST} (<0.003) between them, but differences between lake and riverine populations led to a pooled $\Phi_{ST} = 0.10$ across all regions. Pairwise Φ_{ST} values (Table 2) produced significant differences between all lake samples and the two pooled river groups, the Lake Erie tributaries and the Ohio River tributaries, while the difference between the two river groups was not significant even though private alleles occurred in several rivers on each side of the divide (Figure 2). The male-inherited form of CO1 showed more sharing of haplotypes (Figure 3, accession numbers MN125131-MN125143) yet they still indicated clear separation between the Black and Cuyahoga rivers, from where most samples derived.

We identified 4 different type A haplotypes among 9 individuals, 8 from the East Branch Black River and 1 from Eagle Creek, albeit a haplotype present in the Black River (Figure 1). Combined with the Type A haplotypes from Doucet-Beaupré et al. (2012), accession numbers MN125127-MN125130, intraspecific variation of 9% at the DNA base level occurs in *P. grandis* (Figure 4). All of these individuals were morphologically identified as *P. grandis*, and sequences of male mitochondria of four of the Black River mussels confirmed their identification. These Type A sequences were similar in distance to the divergence between *P. grandis* and the congeneric species, *P. cataracta* and *P. fragilis*. Adding one type A haplotype available from the Chattahoochee River on the Georgia/Alabama border (Genbank MG199625) and a Type B haplotype from the Escambia River in southern Alabama (Genbank MG199624), supported a hypothesis of basal division between the two haplotype forms. Furthermore, this phylogeny requires the divergence of both forms prior to *P. grandis* migrating north.

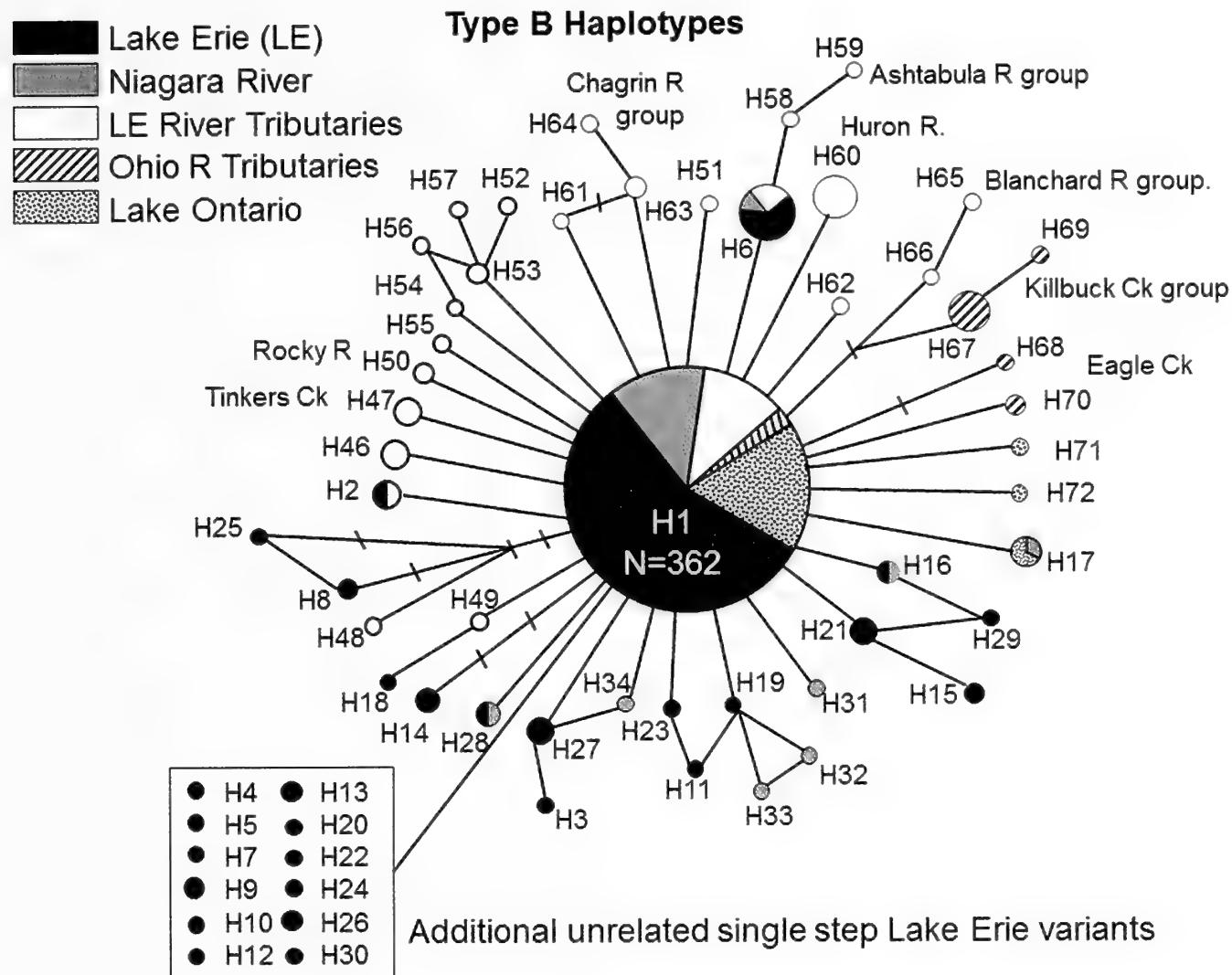


Figure 2. Haplotype network for a fragment of the COI gene amplified in *P. grandis* that were collected across the Lake Erie watershed, Niagara River, Lake Ontario, many tributary streams of Lake Erie, and two streams below the northern divide in the Ohio River watershed. The network reflects the Type B common female mitotype, to which the Type A variant connects distantly (Figure 4). H35–45 occur west and northwest of the Great Lakes and therefore are not included here. Size of the circle reflects the number of that haplotype found. Hatch marks indicate additional mutational steps and labels correspond to the name assigned in Genbank.

To address the process of divergence, Tajima's *D* differed significantly ($\Theta_s >> \Theta_\pi$) in all lake samples (Table 1) as previously reported (Krebs et al., 2015), but results for rivers was confounded by the combined presence of the Type A and Type B forms due to the large number of

segregating sites when Type A haplotypes are included. As a consequence, Tajima's *D* differed significantly in Lake Erie tributaries only when the Type A form was excluded, while the reverse occurred for the Ohio River tributaries. A complementary test, mismatch analysis (in ARLEQUIN

Table 2. Population pairwise Φ_{ST} values among *P. grandis* individuals collected from the 5 regions. Samples derived from within Lake Erie, the Niagara River, Lake Ontario, the Tributaries of Lake Erie, and two headwater tributaries of the Ohio River, Eagle Creek and Kilbuck Creek in Ohio.

Region	Lake Erie	Niagara R.	Lake Ontario	Lake Erie Tributaries
Niagara R.	0.000			
Lake Ontario	0.002	0.002		
Lake Erie Tributaries	0.156***	0.070***	0.080***	
Ohio R. tributaries	0.371***	0.202***	0.241***	0.011

*** P<0.001

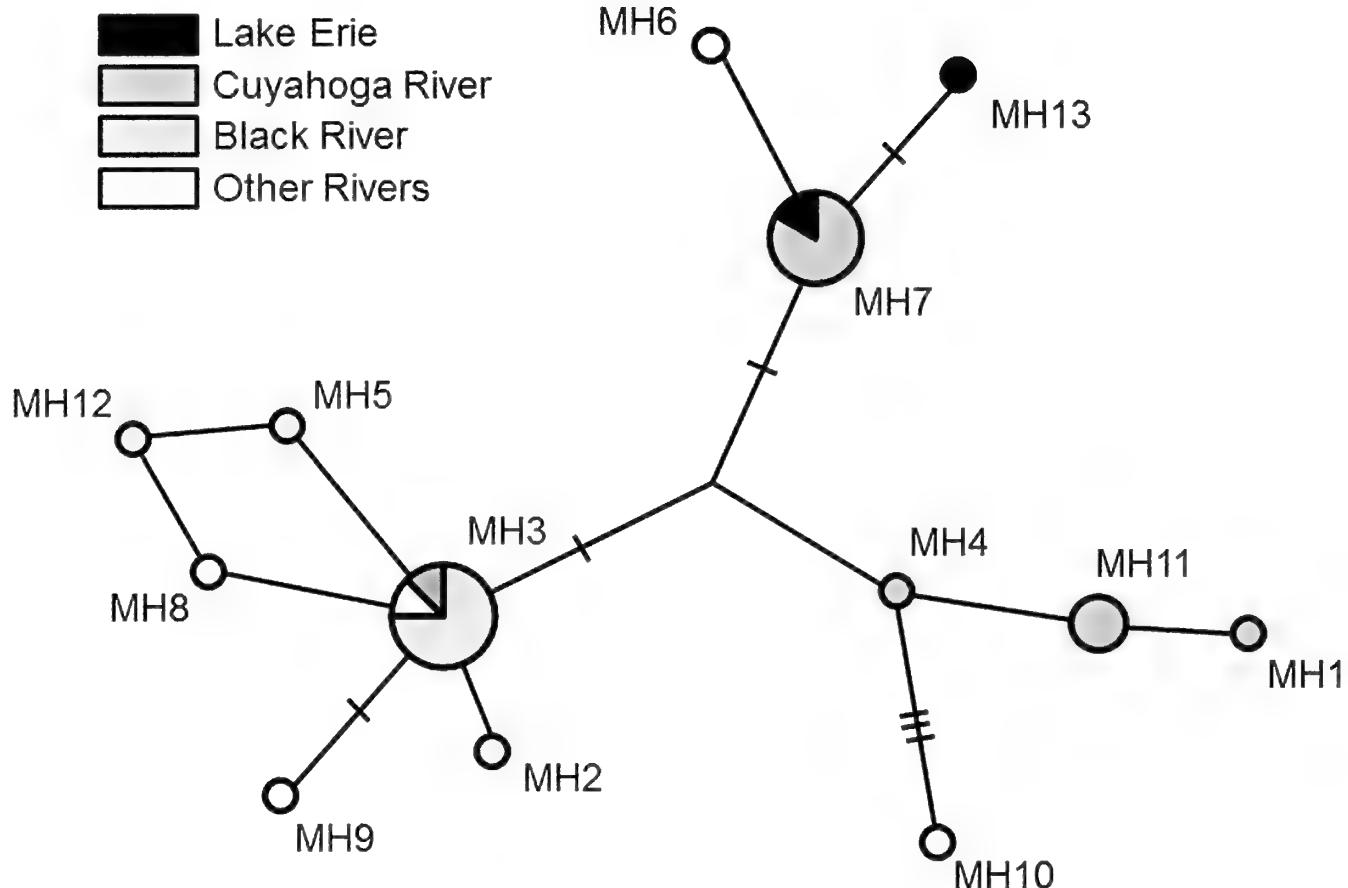


Figure 3. Haplotype network for a fragment of the male-inherited COI gene amplified for a subset ($N=28$) of the *P. grandis* sampled for population structure. Where multiple allele copies were found, samples came from both above and below the fall lines separating upper and lower reaches. Size of the circle reflects haplotype sample number, with single copies found for all but three. Hatch marks indicate additional mutational steps and labels correspond to the name assigned in Genbank.

and DnaSP), indicated no significant difference from predictions expected under population expansion ($P > 0.05$) in either tributary region or when pooling data for all of the Lake Erie watershed (results not shown).

DISCUSSION

A star pattern of variation in *P. grandis* COI haplotypes (Fig 2) was identified in each region, which infers that one common haplotype is surrounded by many variants of short branch lengths (Avise, 2000; Smietanka et al., 2009). This pattern is characteristic of populations founded by a small number of individuals that rapidly expanded in size (Braverman et al., 1995). The pattern has persisted even though populations today are much reduced from the past, whether from the invasion of dreissenid mussels depleting and restricting lake populations to coastal areas (Zanatta et al., 2015; Bossenbroek et al., 2018) or where urbanization has depleted habitat in many rivers (Krebs et al., 2010a). Isolation played a concurrent role, shown by a pattern of multiple allele copies or short lineages of related sequences deriving from a single stream.

The evolutionary model that best explains these haplotype patterns in *P. grandis* is one of neutrality where each mutation creates a new allele. Based on this neutral, infinite-allele model, the observed variation in *P. grandis* in Lake Erie suggests that the species exists as one almost panmictic population (Krebs et al., 2015) from which the species expanded into Lake Ontario as a recent colonization wave from a leading edge, which further reduced variation. Today, one haplotype in Lake Erie persists at an allele frequency a little above 80%, rising to over 90% in Lake Ontario. When *P. grandis* may have entered Lake Ontario is unknown. The first Welland Canal connecting lakes Erie and Ontario opened in 1829. But, *P. grandis* also reached the lower Genesee and Oswego basins, the lowland parts of the Mohawk River (Strayer and Jirka, 1997) and the Lake Champlain (Smith 1985) basins of New York State perhaps through links to the Erie Canal that connected the Cuyahoga and Allegheny Rivers, among others (Strayer 1987, 1995). Canals would have provided good habitat for lacustrine species like *P. grandis* (Tevesz et al., 2002a).

Ortmann (1924) proposed that founder events from the west likely produced the mussel assemblage in Lake

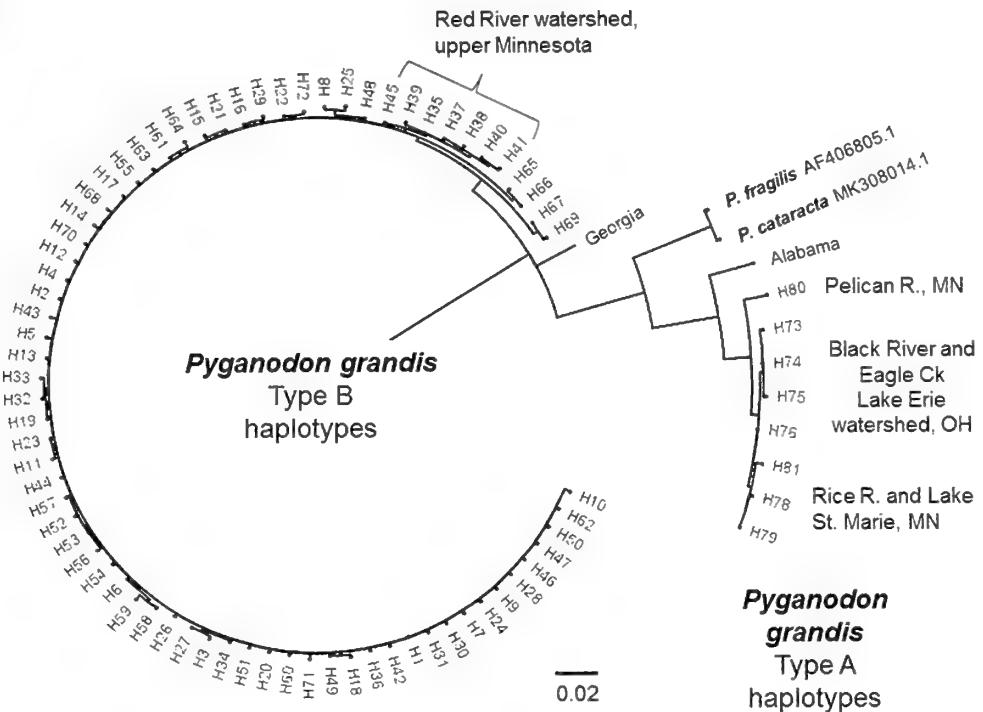


Figure 4. Gene tree for a fragment of the COI gene in *P. grandis* showing the distant relationship between the many Type B haplotypes, and the Type A haplotypes, and haplotypes of two congeneric species that were similarly distant to each haplotype form. Unless indicated, samples span the Midwest and Great Lakes regions. The southern variants fell at the base of each haplotype clade, which supports a deep origin for both haplotype forms predating northern expansion. The Red River clade, which is the most divergent group within the northern samples (Krebs et al., 2015), is highlighted as a contrast to Type A.

Erie, via the Wabash River and its connection to the Maumee watershed, although Graf (2002) expanded the model to multiple lake sources. Little discussion considered river origins for species like *P. grandis*. Variation between Lake Erie populations and those of its tributaries suggests either that mussels independently reached the rivers or that additional colonization events supplemented genetic variation derived from the lake. Assemblages in the Cuyahoga and Black rivers changed over time even before European settlements (Tevesz et al., 2002b), and each river possessed markedly different groups above and below waterfalls that isolated upper reaches (Dean, 1880; Lyons et al., 2007; Krebs et al., 2010b). These rivers descend from a ridge line at about 300 m down to Lake Erie at 175 m, and at least one high waterfall formed in each river. In another locally common mussel, *Lampsilis siliquoidea* (Barnes, 1823), the impact of these falls among neighboring streams was visible in large differences in female-inherited haplotype frequencies, while the same male-inherited sequences could be found above and below waterfalls (Krebs et al., 2013).

Movement across watersheds probably involved headwater capture following glacial retreat and isostatic rebounding, a process that is well documented across the Great Lakes watershed subsequent to the last glaciers, 12000–15000 years ago (Coffey, 1958; Bishop, 1995). By that time, populations of *P. grandis* had likely expanded in the upper Ohio River south of the glacial line providing

more time for new mutations to arise from a common haplotype. Simple mutation-drift dynamics could create the presently observed patterns in genetic variation, requiring only typical mitochondrial mutation rates (Haag-Liautard et al., 2008; Hamilton, 2009) and modest historical effective population sizes, which are a reasonable expectation for this generalist species (Watters et al., 2009). Partitioned sub-populations would enable drift to randomly impact isolated alleles (Wright, 1931, 1932), and do so differently among streams, to which additional mutation and occasional migration can be added (Hössjer et al., 2014). Thus, the post-glacial time period for the region likely sufficed for both rare variants to arise and a common allele to slowly decline following sequential colonization sweeps, with related but different rare haplotypes arising in streams.

Genetically unusual if not unique for *P. grandis* is the co-occurrence of two highly differentiated (9%) mtDNA forms. Support for ancient divergence within *P. grandis* over some form of introgression derives from the phylogeny (Fig 4.) that includes one Type A haplotype from the Chattahoochee River on the Georgia/Alabama border (Genbank Accession MG199625), and a Type B haplotype came from the Escambia River in southern Alabama (Genbank MG199624) (Smith et al., 2018 a, b). A BLAST search showed each sequence to be only 96-97% similar to their respective northern clade relatives, while all northern sequences within both clades were much more closely related to each other at 1-2%. Therefore, Type A

and Type B mitochondrial types have likely co-occurred in *P. grandis* a very long time, possibly since before the radiation of the genus, and both haplotypes were carried northward in migrants following glacial retreat. Other haplotypes likely came too, and they reached across headwaters where simple drift processes limited what haplotypes remain today.

In sum, the historical movement of *P. grandis* demonstrates how population structure may have arisen in many mussels, arriving through different channels from the south in the Pleistocene. *Pyganodon grandis* was just more extreme in its success, as it reached across to eastern Colorado (Liu et al., 1996), up the Mississippi to northern Minnesota (Krebs et al., 2015) and Canada (Doucet-Beaupré et al., 2012), and separately, along the Ohio River and Wabash River to reach the lakes and through eastern tributaries to access streams below the lakes. It has even dispersed to the Escambia-Choctawhatchee watersheds (Haag, 2012) and south to Mesoamerica (Pfeiffer et al., 2019), probably long before any colonization of the Great Lakes. Perhaps these areas were reached when sea levels were low and glaciers high (Swift et al., 1986). Yet, the large lacustrine populations became the least genetically diverse, probably from rapid and sequential population expansion, a process that favors few or one allele compared to the expectations with stream capture of already diverse populations.

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Appendix 1. Supplemental Table. The samples used in the present study labeled by haplotype number. The main biogeographic region is provided relevant to previous work (Krebs et al., 2015) with new samples for Lake Ontario, Lake Erie (LE) tributary rivers and two rivers from south of the Laurentian Divide, Kilbuck and Eagle Creeks, which are in the Ohio River watershed. Subwatersheds list the specific area of collection along with sample size (N), Genbank accession numbers, and a pair of coordinates within the range of that haplotype.

Haplotype	Region	Sub watershed	N	Accession #	Latitude	Longitude
H1	All regions except Red River	most if not all sub-watersheds	416	KM262507.1		
H2	LE & Tributary	Sheldon Marsh, Vermilion River	2	KM262508.1	41.4246	-82.6242
H3	Lake Erie	Sheldon Marsh	1	KM262509.1	41.4246	-82.6242
H4	LE & Sandusky Bay	Old Woman Creek, Yellow Swale	2	KM262510.1	41.3794	-82.5117
H5	Lake Erie	Old Woman Creek	1	KM262511.1	41.3794	-82.5117
H6	LE, Niagara R. & Tributaries	Many nearshore sites & Ashtabula River	8	KM262512.1	41.8582	-80.6397
H7	Sandusky Bay	South Creek	1	KM262513.1	41.398	-83.0106
H8	Sandusky Bay	South Creek, Yellow Swale	2	KM262514.1	41.398	-83.0106
H9	Sandusky Bay	Muddy Creek Bay	1	KM262515.1	41.4496	-83.0281
H10	Lake Erie	Plum Brook	1	KM262516.1	41.4247	-82.639
H11	Lake Erie	Cranberry Creek	1	KM262517.1	41.3824	-82.4727
H12	Lake Erie	Cranberry Creek	1	KM262518.1	41.3824	-82.4727
H13	Lake Erie	Crane Creek	2	KM262519.1	41.6275	-83.2018
H14	Lake Erie & Sandusky Bay	Turtle Creek	3	KM262520.1	41.6031	-83.1517
H15	Lake Erie	Turtle Creek	2	KM262521.1	41.6031	-83.1517
H16	Sandusky Bay & Niagara R.	Grand Isle & Muddy Creek Bay	2	KM262522.1	43.0395	-78.8937
H17	Niagara River & Lake Ontario	Grand Isle & Eastern inlets	3	KM262523.1	43.6254	-76.1959
H18	Lake Erie	Misery Bay	1	KM262524.1	42.1614	-80.0898
H19	Lake Erie	Duck Pond	1	KM262525.1	42.0956	-80.071
H20	Lake Erie	Misery Bay	1	KM262526.1	42.1614	-80.0898
H21	Lakes Erie & St Clair	East Harbor, Young Marsh	3	KM262527.1	41.5421	-82.8104
H22	Lake Erie	Crane Creek	1	KM262528.1	41.6275	-83.2017
H23	Sandusky Bay	Muddy Creek Bay	1	KM262529.1	41.4496	-83.0281
H24	Sandusky Bay	Muddy Creek Bay	1	KM262530.1	41.4496	-83.0281
H25	Lake Erie	East Harbor	1	KM262531.1	41.5421	-82.8104
H26	Lake Erie	North Maumee Bay, Turtle Creek	2	KM262532.1	45.9184	-89.5324
H27	Lake Erie	Toussaint Creek	2	KM262533.1	41.5784	-83.1085
H28	Lake Erie and Niagara R.	Turtle Creek, Strawberry Island	2	KM262534.1	41.6031	-83.1517
H29	Lake Erie	Turtle Creek	1	KM262535.1	41.6031	-83.1517
H30	Lake Erie	Turtle Creek	1	KM262536.1	41.6031	-83.1517
H31	Niagara River	Strawberry Island	1	KM262537.1	42.9539	-78.9235
H32	Niagara River	Strawberry Island	1	KM262538.1	42.9539	-78.9235
H33	Niagara River	Strawberry Island	1	KM262539.1	42.9539	-78.9235
H34	Niagara River	Strawberry Island	1	KM262540.1	42.9539	-78.9235
H35	Minnesota (NW)	Red River and upper lakes, Minnesota.	8	KM262541.1	47.8253	-93.3748
H36	Minnesota	Lac Qui R.; lower Minn R., Minn.	3	KM262542.1	45.0166	-95.8866
H37	Minnesota (NW)	Rice R., Deer L. Upper Minnesota	6	KM262543.1	46.5326	-93.32
H38	Minnesota (NW)	Pfeiffer Lake, Upper Minnesota	4	KM262544.1	47.7515	-92.4771
H39	Minnesota (NW)	Pfeiffer Lake, Upper Minnesota	1	KM262545.1	47.8253	-93.3748
H40	Minnesota (NW)	Prairie River, Upper Minnesota	12	KM262546.1	47.2391	-93.4821
H41	Minnesota (NW)	Prairie River, Upper Minnesota	1	KM262547.1	47.2391	-93.4821
H42	Minnesota (NW)	Prairie Lake, Michigan	2	KM262548.1	41.8586	-85.4037
H43	Minnesota (NW)	Big Fork R., Upper Minnesota	1	KM262549.1	47.8004	-93.5724
H44	Upper Great Lakes	North Twin Lake, WI	1	KM262550.1	46.0665	-89.0887
H45	Upper Great Lakes	Annabelle & St. Germaine Lakes, WI	2	KM262551.1	46.2206	-89.6787
H46	LE Tributary	Black, Grand, Cuyahoga (above falls) Rivers	3	MN125095	41.4545	-82.1354
H47	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (Tinkers Creek, above falls)	3	MN125096	41.3146	-81.4354
H48	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (Tinkers Creek, above falls)	1	MN125097	41.3146	-81.4354
H49	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (Tinkers Creek, above falls)	1	MN125098	41.3146	-81.4354
H50	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (Tinkers Creek, above falls)	2	MN125099	41.3146	-81.4354
H51	LE Tributary	Black River	1	MN125100	41.4545	-82.1354
H52	LE Tributary	Black River	1	MN125101	41.4545	-82.1354
H53	LE Tributary	Black River, Cuyahoga River (above falls)	2	MN125102	41.4545	-82.1354

(Continued)

Appendix 1. (Continued)

Haplo-type	Region	Sub watershed	N	Accession #	Latitude	Longitude
H54	LE Tributary	Black River West Branch	1	MN125103	41.3141	-82.1316
H55	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (above falls)	1	MN125104	41.3018	-81.2026
H56	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (above falls)	1	MN125105	41.3018	-81.2026
H57	LE Tributary	Ashtabula River East Branch	1	MN125106	41.8119	-80.5973
H58	LE Tributary	Ashtabula River East Branch	1	MN125107	41.8119	-80.5973
H59	LE Tributary	Ashtabula River West Branch	1	MN125108	41.7645	-80.6155
H60	LE Tributary	Huron River West Branch	7	MN125109	41.286	-82.6435
H61	LE Tributary	Rocky River East Branch (drained pond)	1	MN125110	41.2445	-81.6779
H62	LE Tributary	Rocky River East Branch (drained pond)	1	MN125111	41.2445	-81.6779
H63	LE Tributary	Chagrin River (above falls)	2	MN125112	41.5257	-81.2605
H64	LE Tributary	Chagrin River (above falls)	1	MN125113	41.5257	-81.2605
H65	LE Tributary	Blanchard River	1	MN125114	40.8915	-83.5643
H66	LE Tributary	Blanchard River	1	MN125115	40.8915	-83.5643
H67	Ohio River Tributary	Killbuck Creek	6	MN125116	40.9528	-82.0262
H68	Ohio River Tributary	Killbuck Creek	1	MN125117	40.9528	-82.0262
H69	Ohio River Tributary	Killbuck Creek	1	MN125118	40.9528	-82.0262
H70	Ohio River Tributary	Eagle Creek (Mahoning R. watershed)	1	MN125119	41.2827	-81.118
H71	Lake Ontario	Blind Sodus Bay	1	MN125120	43.338	-76.7281
H72	Lake Ontario	North Bay	1	MN125121	43.6314	-76.1919
H73	LE Tributary	Black River East Branch	1	MN125122	41.2363	-82.0797
H74	LE Tributary	Black River East Branch	6	MN125123	41.2363	-82.0797
H75	LE Tributary	Black River East Branch	1	MN125124	41.2363	-82.0797
H76	LE & Ohio R. Tributary	Black River East Branch, Eagle Creek	2	MN125125	41.2363	-82.0797
H78	Quebec, Canada	Lac Sainte Marie	1	MN125127	45.9561	-75.9305
H79	Quebec, Canada	Lac Sainte Marie	1	MN125128	45.9561	-75.9305
H80	Minnesota (NW)	Pelican Lake Minnesota	2	MN125129	48.0633	-92.8321
H81	Minnesota (NW)	Rice River	3	MN125130	46.5326	-93.32
MH1	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (above falls)	1	MN125131	41.3018	-81.2026
MH2	LE Tributary	Black River	1	MN125132	41.45453	-82.1354
MH3	LE Tributaries	Black River West Branch, Tinkers Creek, Ashtabula River	8	MN125133	41.2951	-82.1486
MH4	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River (Tinkers Creek, above falls)	1	MN125134	41.3146	-81.4354
MH5	LE Tributary	Black River	1	MN125135	41.45453	-82.1354
MH6	LE Tributary	Conneaut Creek	1	MN125136	41.9041	-80.5289
MH7	LE Tributaries	Diverse Rivers, Sandusky Bay	7	MN125137	41.4195	-82.9227
MH8	LE Tributary	Black River East Branch	1	MN125138	41.2363	-82.0797
MH9	LE Tributary	Huron River west branch	1	MN125139	41.286	-82.6435
MH10	LE Tributary	Huron River west branch	1	MN125140	41.286	-82.6435
MH11	LE Tributary	Cuyahoga River & Tinkers Creek (above falls)	3	MN125141	41.3018	-81.2026
MH12	LE Tributary	Black River East Branch	1	MN125142	41.2363	-82.0797
MH13	Lake Erie	Sandusky Bay	1	MN125143	41.4195	-82.9227

Description of two new muricid species (Gastropoda: Muricidae: Muricopsinae) from the western Atlantic and the eastern Pacific

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ABSTRACT

Two new species of Muricidae are described from Brazil and from the Pacific coast of Panama. *Favartia aquinoi* new species from Brazil is compared with the related *F. glypta* (M. Smith, 1938), as well as with *F. cellulosa* (Conrad, 1846) and *F. levicula* (Dall, 1889). *Muricopsis vassarti* new species is described from the Pacific coast of Panama and compared with three other *Muricopsis* species from the Eastern Pacific, *M. zeteki* Hertlein and Strong, 1951, *M. westonensis* Myers and D'Attilio, 1990 and *M. taupini* Garrigues, 2016.

Additional Keywords: *Favartia*, *Muricopsis* new species, Brazil, Panama, eastern Pacific

INTRODUCTION

Muricopsinae comprise 13 genera and one subgenus [*Muricopsis* (*Risomurex*)] and include some 268 species (Houart, 2018, updated). Two new species are described herein, the first, from Brazil, is assigned to *Favartia* Jousseaume, 1880, the second is a *Muricopsis* s.s. species from Pacific Panama.

Thirty Recent species are assigned to the genus *Favartia* in the Western Atlantic (MolluscaBase 2019a). This number includes species of *Favartia* (*Murexiella*) and may slightly differ in recent publications, depending on what synonyms are considered by the authors.

A group of species is of particular interest. It is composed of *F. glypta* (M. Smith, 1938), *F. cellulosa* (Conrad, 1846), *F. levicula* (Dall, 1889) and a new species described from Brazil.

Rios (1985) considered *Murexiella iemanja* Petuch, 1979, described from the Abrolhos Archipelago in Brazil, a synonym of *F. glypta* from the Pliocene of Clewiston, Florida, but also known from the Recent fauna and occurring in several places from Florida to

Brazil. He was followed by Houart (1991: 32) and by Vokes (1994: 112).

Favartia glypta was considered a synonym of *F. levicula* by Radwin and D'Attilio (1976: 159). However, these two species differ in shell ornamentation and protoconch characters. The protoconch of *F. glypta* is paucispiral, consisting of 1.5 rounded whorls (Figures 3, 25) while that of *F. levicula* is conical and multispiral, consisting of almost 4 whorls (Figure 37).

The Western Atlantic and Eastern Pacific species assigned to *Muricopsis* by several authors, such as Keen (1971), Vokes (1971, 1994), Kaicher (1974, 1978, 1980, 1991), Fair (1976), Radwin and D'Attilio (1976) and many others are now assigned to *Muricopsis* and to *Murexsul* (MolluscaBase, 2019b), depending on their shell morphology (Merle and Houart, 2003).

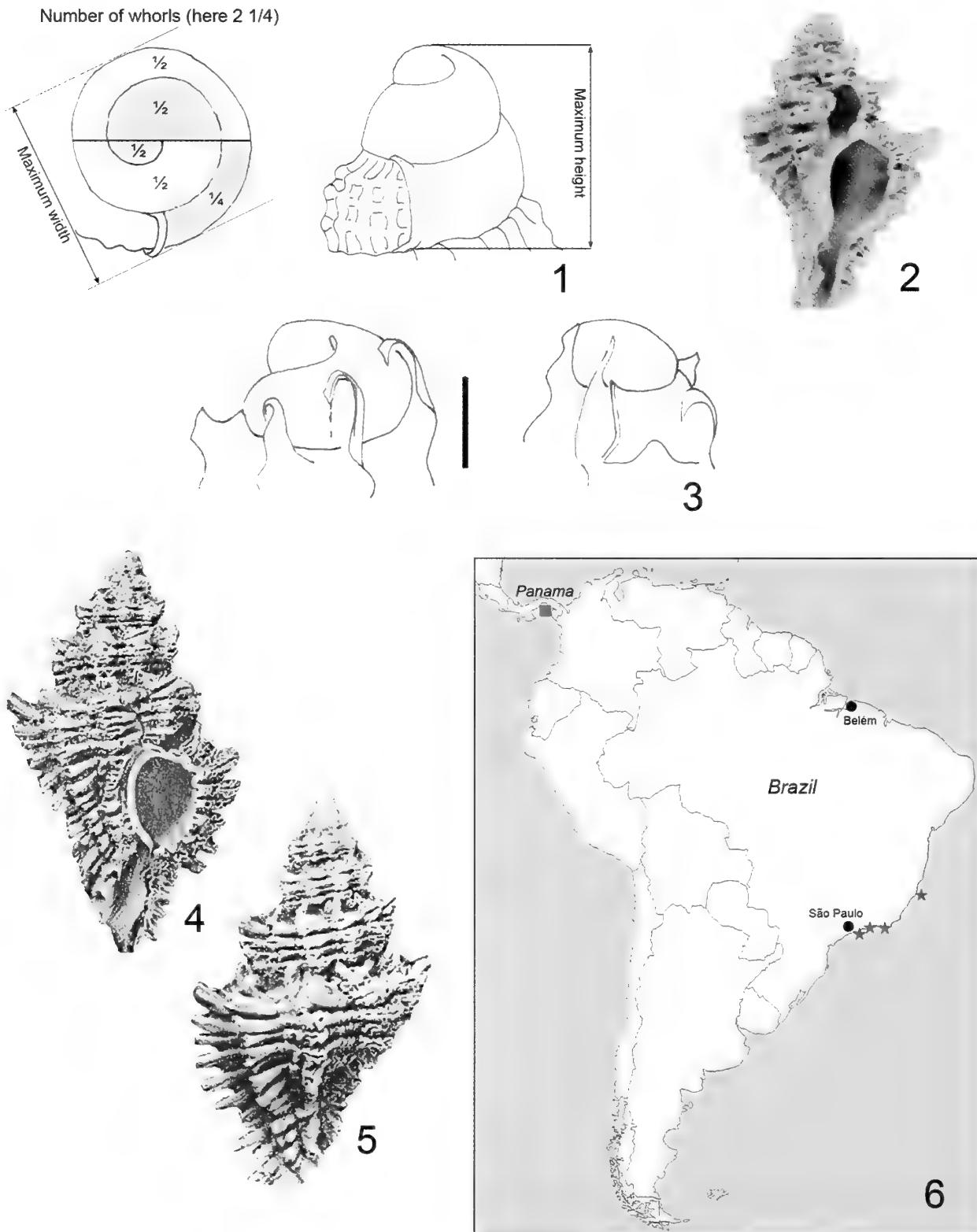
The species of *Muricopsis* are characterized by the hypertrophy of apertural denticle D2 and by strong columellar folds. The spiral sculpture consists of primary cords P1–P5 on the convex part of the teleoconch whorl, atrophied P6 on the siphonal canal, followed by primary cords ADP and occasionally MP. In *Murexsul oxytata* (M. Smith, 1938) and other species of that group, the P2 primary cord is atrophied and the columellar folds are absent.

Of the four Eastern Pacific species that had been included in *Muricopsis*, two remain in *Muricopsis*: *M. pauxilla* (A. Adams, 1854) and *M. zeteki* Hertlein and Strong, 1951, and two have been reassigned to *Murexsul*: *M. armatus* (A. Adams, 1854) and *M. jaliscoensis* (Radwin and D'Attilio, 1970). While the spiral sculpture of *M. pauxilla* is typical for *Muricopsis*, it lacks columellar folds. Two additional species of *Muricopsis* were subsequently described, *M. westonensis* Myers and D'Attilio, 1990, from Cocos Island, Costa Rica and *M. taupini* Garrigues, 2016, from the Galapagos. A fifth species of *Muricopsis*, syntopic with *M. zeteki*, is here described as new.

A broad phylogenetic analysis of Muricopsinae is needed in order to verify the status of some genera and assigned species.

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Figures 1-6. Two new species of Muricopsinae. **1.** Method for determining diameter, height and counting the number of protoconch whorls. **2-5.** *Favartia glypta* (M. Smith, 1938). **2.** Paratype of *Murexiella iemanja* Petuch, 1979. Brazil, Bahia State, 2 km E Santa Bárbara Island, Abrolhos Archipelago, Chapeirão Reef, 25 m, USNM 780653. **3.** Protoconch of *Murexiella iemanja* Petuch, 1979, holotype USNM 780652. **4-5.** Florida, Hendry County, Clewiston, Caloosahatchee Formation, Pliocene, Holotype, University of Alabama, Museum of Natural History, 25.3 mm (reproduced from Vokes, 1968). **6.** Distribution of *Favartia aquinoi* new species (red stars) and *Muricopsis (Muricopsis) vassarti* new species (red square). Scale bar = 500 µm.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The new material studied was collected between 1960 and 2008 in Pacific Panama and along the Brazilian coast. The material used for comparison is deposited in MNHN, USNM and in the author's private collection.

Characters used to describe shell morphology address the general aspect of the shell, its shape, size, and color, the shape of the spire including the protoconch, the number and features of the teleoconch whorls, details of the suture and of the subsutural ramp, details of axial and spiral sculpture, the aperture, the siphonal canal and the operculum. The description is based on the type material.

The method used to determine diameter and height, and to count the number of protoconch whorls, follows Bouchet and Kantor (2004) as shown in Figure 1.

Abbreviations used in the text are as follows: IRSNB: Institut royal des Sciences naturelles de Belgique, Bruxelles, Belgium; MNHN: Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, Paris, France; RH: R. Houart Collection; USNM: National Museum of Natural History, Washington, DC, USA; ad: adult; dd: collected empty; juv: juvenile; lv: collected alive.

Terminology used to describe the spiral cords and the apertural denticles (after Merle 2001, 2005) (Figures 7, 8, 24, 27, 40, 41). Terminology in parentheses: variable feature.

Convex part of teleoconch whorl and siphonal canal: Adis: Adapical infrasutural secondary cord on subsutural ramp; IP: Infrasutural primary cord on subsutural ramp; P1–P6: Primary spiral cords on the convex part of the teleoconch whorl and the siphonal canal; s1–s5: Secondary cord of the convex part of the teleoconch whorl (for example, s1: Secondary cord of the convex part of the teleoconch whorl between P1 and P2); ADP: Adapertural primary cord on the siphonal canal; MP: Median primary cord on the siphonal canal; ABP: Abapertural primary cord on the siphonal canal.

Aperture: ID: infrasutural denticle; D1 to D6: abapical denticles.

SYSTEMATICS

Family Muricidae Rafinesque, 1815

Subfamily Muricopsinae Radwin and D'Attilio, 1971

Genus *Favartia* Jousseaume, 1880

Type Species: *Murex breviculus* Sowerby II, 1834, Indo-West Pacific, by original designation.

***Favartia aquinoi* new species**

Figures 6, 7–19

Type Material: Holotype IRSNB MT.3801/I.G.34044, 1 paratype coll. Wanderley Vieira de Aquino Junior, Sao Paulo, Brazil; 1 paratype R. Houart, all from the type locality.

Type Locality: Brazil, Rio de Janeiro State, off Arraial do Cabo, 30–35 m, 2008.

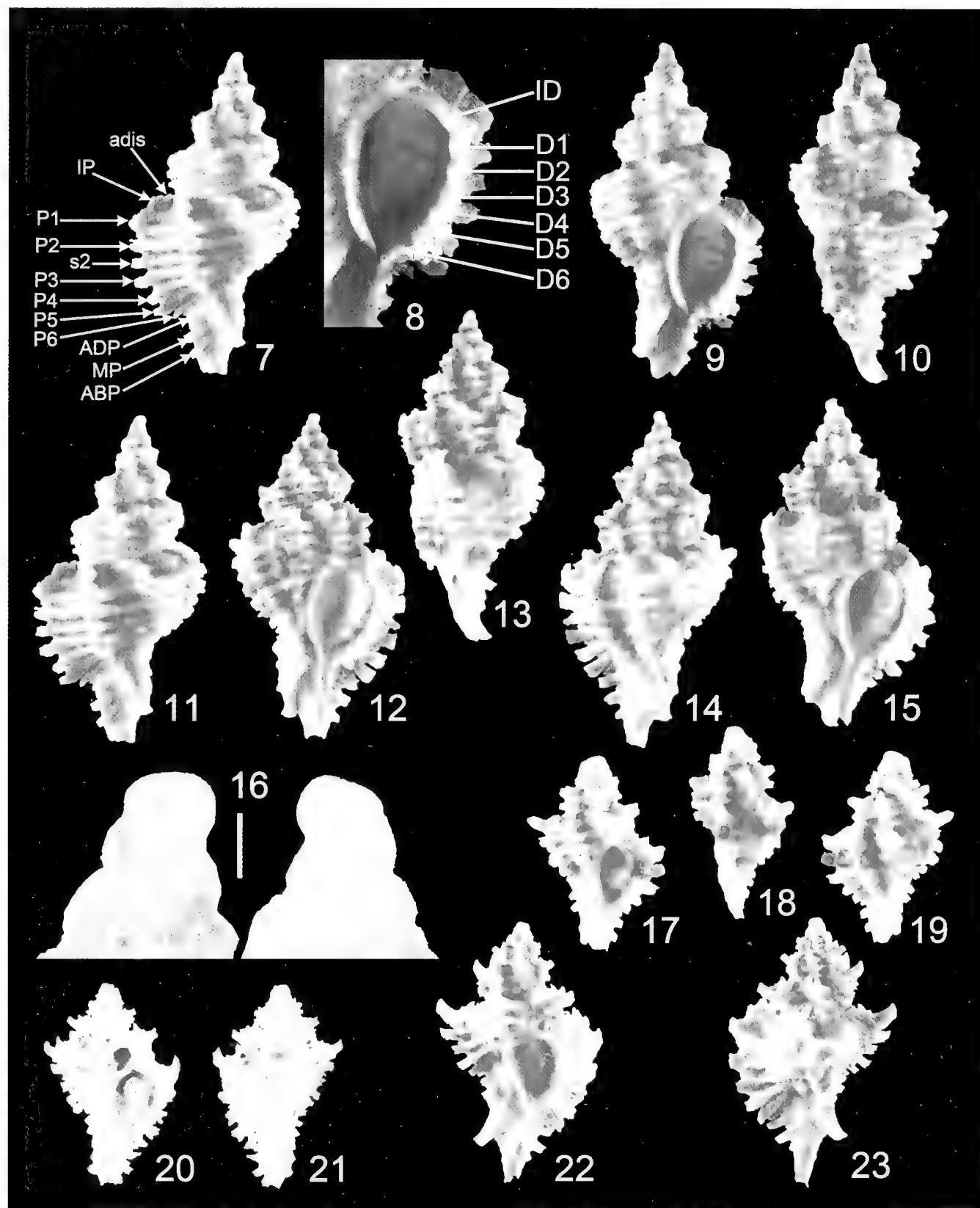
Other Material Examined: Brazil, Ilha do Pai, 16 m, 1960, RH (1 dd, ad); Ilha de São Sebastião, 35–45 m, in sand, 1992, RH (2 lv, ad); Vitoria Bank, 52 m, 1987, RH (1 dd, juv).

Distribution: Brazil, from Vitória Bank to Ilha de São Sebastião, living at 35–45 m.

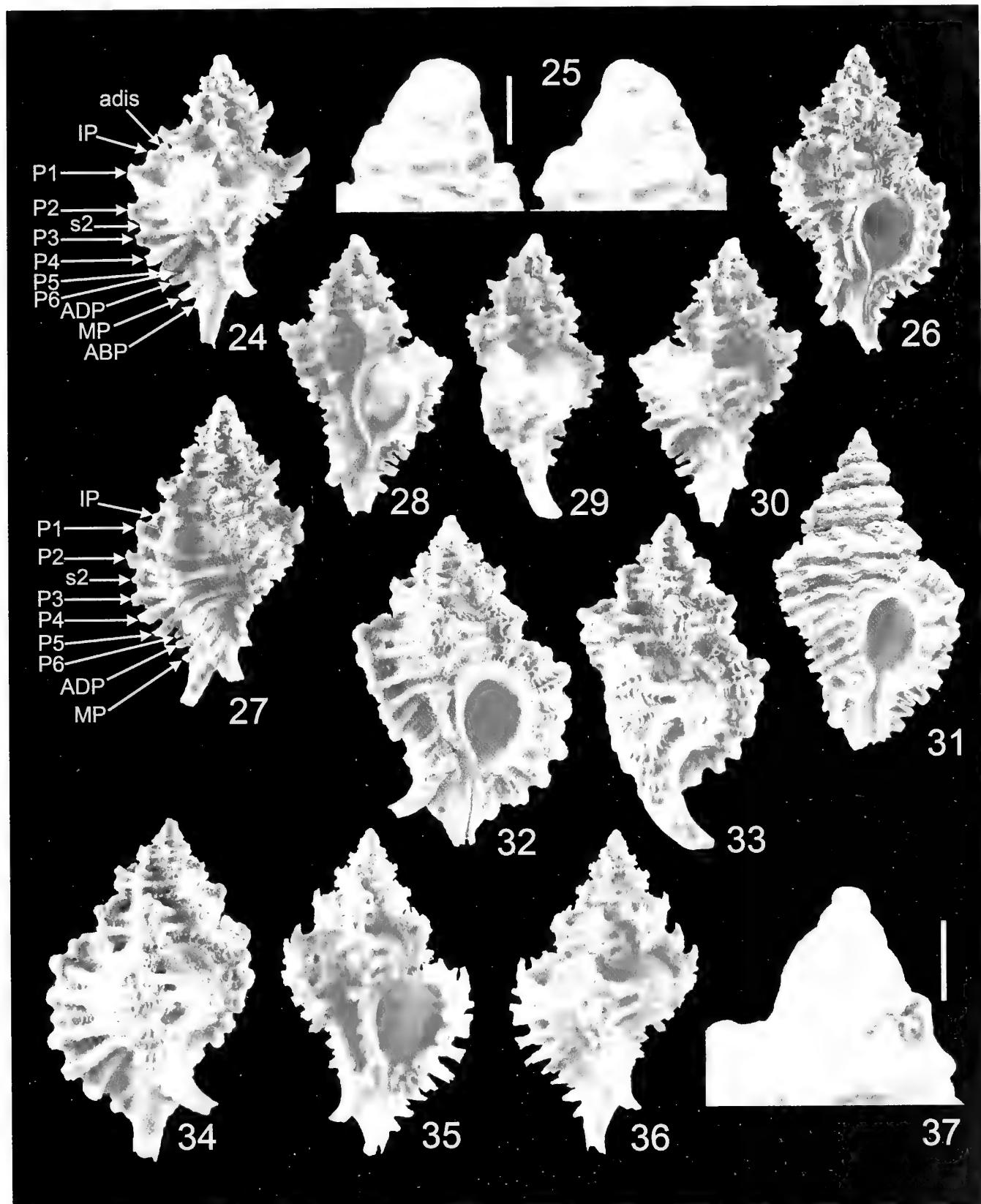
Description: Shell medium sized for the genus, up to 17.9 mm in length. Height/width ratio 1.9–2.0. Slender, lanceolate, biconical, broadly ovate. Very weakly spinose, nodose, lightly built. Subsutural ramp moderately broad, weakly sloping, weakly concave. Shell color creamy white or light tan with occasional brown spots on subsutural ramp, between axial varices. Aperture pale white within.

Spire high, with 1.5 protoconch whorls and up to 5 broad, convex, strongly shouldered teleoconch whorls. Suture impressed. Protoconch large, broad. Whorls rounded. Maximum width and height 900 μ m. Axial sculpture of teleoconch whorls consisting of low, narrow, weakly frondose varices. Each varix with very short, frondose, open, primary spines. First teleoconch whorl with 8 varices, second with 8 or 9, third to penultimate whorl with 9, last whorl with 7 or 8 varices. Spiral sculpture of high, rounded, narrow, weakly nodose primary and secondary cords consisting of (adis), IP, P1–ABP. Adis and IP shallow, giving rise to a small, curved, short spine at intersection of axial varices. P1–P5 of same height and wide on last teleoconch whorl; P6 quite narrower and lower, followed by ADP, MP, and ABP, ADP, and MP of same strength as P1–P5; ABP somewhat smaller. Low, blunt, open spines originate at crossing of axial varices and spiral cords, more apparent on apertural varix. Aperture moderately large, ovate. Columellar lip narrow, smooth. Rim partially erect, adherent at small portion at adapical extremity. Anal notch shallow, broad. Outer lip erect, crenulated, with low ID and D1–D6 within. Siphonal canal short, 18–21% of total shell length, narrow, weakly dorsally recurved, narrowly open, with short, blunt spines corresponding to ADP, MP, and ABP, decreasing in length abapically. Operculum and radula unknown.

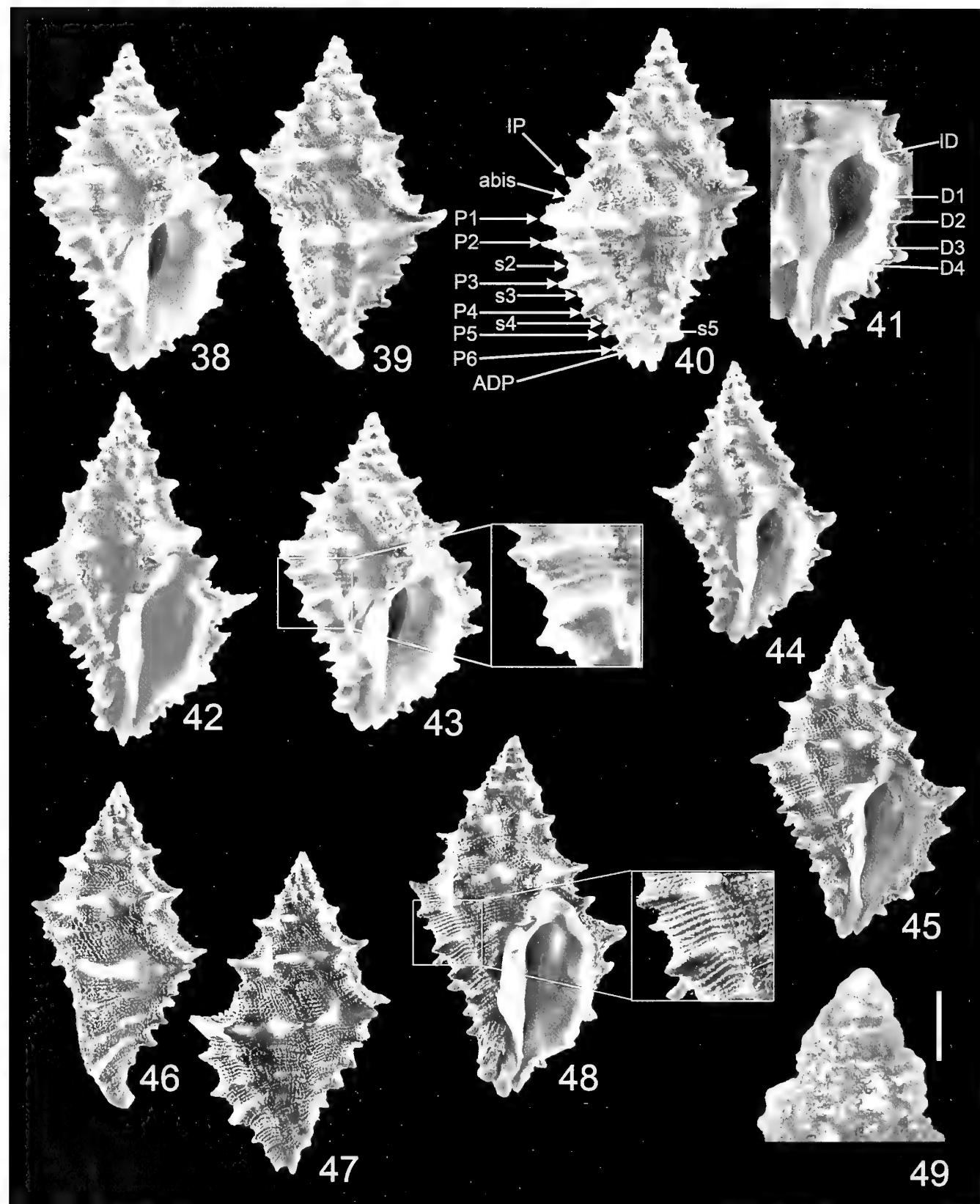
Remarks: *Favartia aquinoi* new species may be compared with *F. glypta* (= *Murexiella iemanja*) which also occurs in Brazil, with *F. cellulosa*, living from Florida to Brazil, and with *F. levicula* known from North Carolina to the Gulf of Mexico. The most similar species, *F. glypta* (Figures 2–5, 20–23, 24–31), differs from *F. aquinoi* new species in having a somewhat smaller shell in Recent specimens with a smaller protoconch, a lower spire, narrower and more squamous primary spiral cords, more distant from each other, a very narrow s2 cord and a narrower siphonal canal with short ADP, MP, and occasionally ABP, spines. These differences can already be observed in juvenile specimens of both species, for example in the holotype of *Murexiella iemanja* (8 mm) (Figures 20–21) and a young *F. aquinoi* new species (5.4 mm) (Figures 17–19). *Favartia cellulosa* (Figures 32–34), mostly known from Florida, but



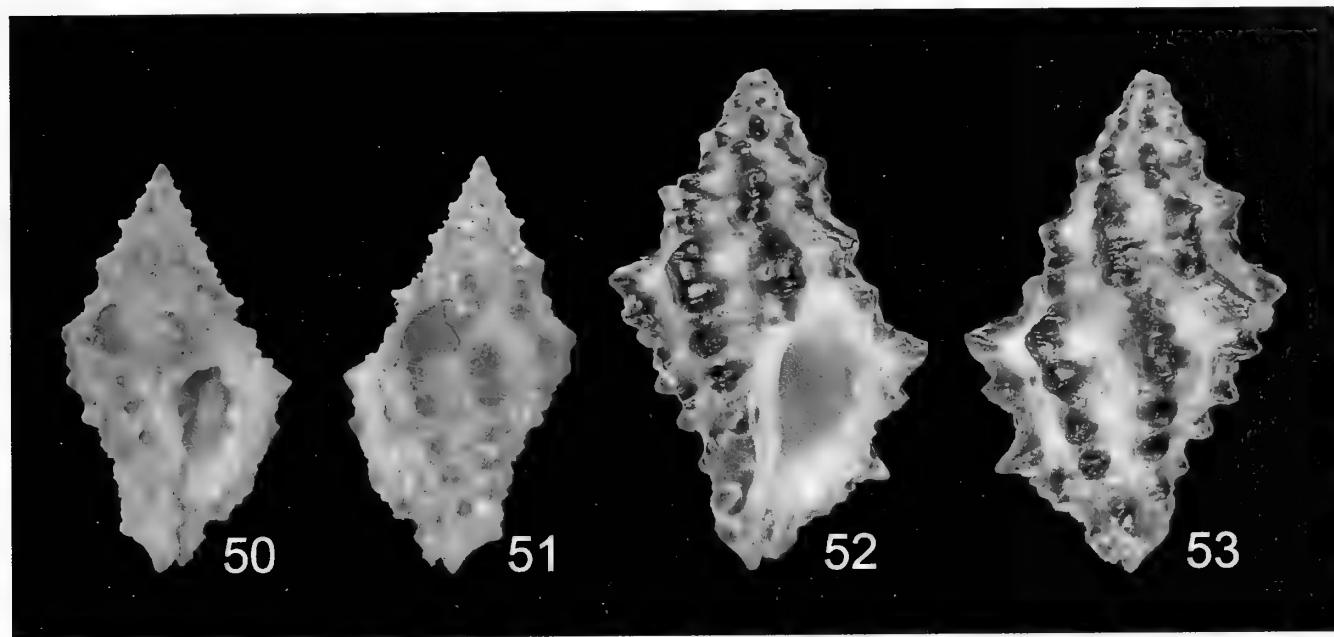
Figures 7-23. *Favartia* species. **7-19.** *Favartia aquinoi* new species Brazil, Rio de Janeiro State, off Arraial do Cabo, 30-35 m. sand and rubble, Sept. 2008. **7-11.** Holotype MT.3801/I.G.34044, 17.8 mm. **12-14.** Paratype RH, 17.9 mm. **15.** Paratype coll. Wanderley Vieira de Aquino Junior, 16.4 mm. **16.** Protoconch (paratype RH), crushed afterwards. **17-19.** Brazil, Vitória Bank, 20°32' S. 38°11' W, 52 m, RH, 5.3 mm. **20-23.** *Favartia glypta* (M. Smith, 1938). **20-21.** Brazil, Bahia State, 2 km E Santa Bárbara Id., Abrolhos Archipelago, Chapeirão reef, 25 m, holotype of *Murexiella iemanja* Petuch, 1979, USNM 780652, 7.8 mm (photo courtesy USNM). **22-23.** Brazil, Espírito Santo State, off Guarapari, 45-60 m, June 2012, RH, 10.6 mm. Scale bars (also for Figure 25) = 500 μ m.



Figures 24–37. *Favartia* species. **24–31.** *Favartia glypta* (M. Smith, 1938). **24–25.** Brazil, Espírito Santo State, off Guarapari, 45–60 m, June 2012, RH, 10.6 mm. **26–27.** Colombia, southern Cartagena, off Golfo de Morrasquillo, 100 m, March 2005, RH, 13.9 mm. **28–30.** Brazil, Espírito Santo State, off Guarapari, 25 m, Nov. 1993, RH, 11.1 mm. **31.** Brazil, Espírito Santo State, Gurupari Channel, muddy area, low tide, April 1995, RH, 15.4 mm. **32–34.** *Favartia cellulosa* (Conrad, 1846). Florida, West of Boca Raton, 54 m, rubble bottom, RH, 16.2 mm. **35–37.** *Favartia levicula* (Dall, 1889). **35–36.** Florida (no other data), RH, 15.5 mm. **37.** Florida, Southwest of Panama City, dredged 55 m, protoconch, RH. Scale bar = 500 μ m.



Figures 38-49. *Muricopsis* species. **38-44.** *Muricopsis (Muricopsis) vassarti* new species. **38-41, 43.** Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, 1997, holotype MHNH-IM-2000-305226, 22.8 mm. **42.** Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, Isla Pedro Gonzales, 8° N, 79° W, 2002, paratype RH, 23.4 mm. **44.** Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, Isla Pedro Gonzales, 8° N, 79° W, 2002, paratype RH, 15.9 mm. **45-49.** *Muricopsis (Muricopsis) zeteki* Hertlein and Strong, 1951. **45-47.** Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, 1997, RH, 21.0 mm. **48.** Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, Isla Pedro Gonzales, 8° N, 79° W, 2002, RH, 28.3 mm. **49.** Protoconch, Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, Isla Pedro Gonzales, 8° N, 79° W, 2002, RH. Scale bar = 500 µm.



Figures 50–53. *Muricopsis* species. **50–51.** *Muricopsis (Muricopsis) westonensis* Myers and D'Attilio, 1990, Costa Rica, Cocos Id, Bahia Weston, 12 m, under dead coral, April 1983, holotype USNM 860014, 13.4 mm (photo courtesy USNM). **52–53.** *Muricopsis (Muricopsis) taupini* Garrigues, 2016. Galapagos, off Santiago Ids, Albany Id, 5–15 m, on rocks, holotype MNHN-IM-2000-31680, 19.9 mm (photo Manuel Caballer, MNHN).

extending its geographical distribution to Brazil, differs in having a broader shell, a smaller protoconch, comparatively narrower primary cords, almost obsolete P6 cord and spine, shorter or almost obsolete, broad, blunt P1–P6 spines, broader and fewer axial varices, and a broader siphonal canal, strongly tapered abapically, with a short ADP spine. *Favartia levicula* (Figures 35–37) differs in having a broader shell with a lower spire, broader and flatter primary spiral cords, obsolete or strongly reduced between each pair of axial varices, a shorter siphonal canal, strongly adapically tapered, and chiefly in having a conical protoconch of 3.5 whorls, denoting planktotrophic larval development (Figure 37), as opposed to a broad, globose, paucispiral protoconch in *F. aquinoi* new species (Figure 16). *Favartia glypta* was considered a junior synonym of *F. levicula* by Radwin and D'Attilio (1976: 159), but this was certainly due to Clench and Pérez-Farfante (1945: 56, pl. 28, figs 1–3), who illustrated two specimens of *F. glypta* as *Murex cellulosus leviculus*, following in that the taxonomy of M. Smith (1939: 16, pl. 13, fig. 8).

Etymology: I am pleased to follow the request of Marcus Coltro, naming this new species after Wanderley Vieira de Aquino Junior, shell collector from São Paulo and past president of *Conquiliologistas do Brasil*.

Genus *Muricopsis* Bucquoy and Dautzenberg, 1882

Subgenus *Muricopsis* Bucquoy and Dautzenberg, 1882

Type Species: *Murex blainvillei* Payraudeau, 1826 (= *Murex cristatus* Brocchi, 1814), Mediterranean, by original designation.

Muricopsis (Muricopsis) vassarti new species

Figures 6, 38–44

Type Material: Holotype, MNHN-IM-2000-305226, Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, 1997; 3 paratypes, Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas, Isla Pedro Gonzales, 8° N, 79° W, 2002, R. Houart.

Type Locality: Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas.

Distribution: Pacific Panama, Archipiélago de las Perlas.

Description: Shell medium-sized for the genus, up to 23.4 mm in length. Height/width ratio 1.6. Lanceolate, biconical, broad. Heavy and spinose. Subsutural ramp broad, strongly sloping, strongly concave. Light brown with darker brown spots on axial varices, between and on spines. Creamy white on dorsal side of spines. Aperture glossy white. Spire high, acute. Protoconch whorls eroded. Teleoconch of up to 8 angulate, strongly shouldered, spinose whorls. Suture weakly adpressed.

Axial sculpture of teleoconch whorls consisting of narrow, high ribs on first teleoconch whorls and high, broad, sharp spinose varices from fourth to last whorl. First to penultimate whorl with 7 or 8 ribs or varices. Last whorl with 6 varices. Spiral sculpture of low, strong, narrow, squamous primary and secondary cords and few threads. Last teleoconch whorl with broad IP, occasional abis, followed by P1, P2, s2, P3, s3, P4, s4, P5, (s5), P6, ADP. Primary cords giving rise to short, acute, triangular, open spines on axial varices. Aperture large, ovate. Columellar lip moderately broad, weakly flaring, with 2 elongate, strong folds abapically. Rim partially

erect, adherent at a small portion at adapical extremity. Very low parietal tooth at adapical extremity. Anal notch deep, narrow. Outer lip weakly erect, crenulated, with 5 strong denticles within, decreasing in strength abapically, consisting of IP, D1-D4. Siphonal canal short, 11-15% of total shell length, broad, weakly dorsally recurved, open, with acute, short P6 and ADP spines. Operculum dark brown, strongly ovate with apical nucleus in lower right. Radula unknown.

Remarks: The four studied specimens of *Muricopsis vassarti* new species were collected living in syntopy with two lots of *M. zeteki*, the latter being obviously more numerous. One specimen, the holotype of *M. vassarti* new species and 12 specimens of *M. zeteki* were taken in one spot, three specimens (paratypes RH) were collected in the other spot, together with 9 specimens of *M. zeteki*. Both lots were left unseparated during many years, until a recent short review of the *Muricopsis* and *Murexsul* species in my collection. *Muricopsis zeteki* (Figures 45-49) differs from the new species in having a blackish brown and white coloured shell and a different spiral sculpture. In *M. zeteki* there are 4-6 narrow spiral threads between each pair of primary cords (Figures 48) as opposed to a single small secondary cord and one or two additional threads in *M. vassarti* new species (Figure 43). In *M. zeteki* the primary cords are also narrower. The protoconch of *M. vassarti* new species was eroded in all examined specimens but could be paucispiral, consisting of 1.25 whorls (see below). It is conical and multisprial, consisting of 3 whorls in *M. zeteki* (Figure 49) denoting planktotrophic larval development, which may explain its extended geographical distribution from the northern Gulf of California to North Peru and the Galapagos Islands. Garrigues (2016: 8) in his description of *M. taupini* described the protoconch of *M. zeteki* as being paucispiral, consisting of 1.25 whorls. The illustrated protoconch (Garrigues, 2016, figs 3I-J) is from a juvenile specimen collected at Boyerana Id, in the Archipiélago de las Perlas and shows indeed a paucispiral protoconch. However, the shell (fig. 3I) looks much closer to *M. vassarti* new species and could be a juvenile specimen of that species. *Muricopsis westonensis* from the Pacific coast of Costa Rica (Figures 50-51) differs from *Muricopsis vassarti* new species in having a smaller, narrower shell with a somewhat less acute spire, a narrower aperture and stronger folds on the columellar lip. It is also less spiny with low, brown coloured knobs at intersection of spiral and axial sculpture instead of sharp, whitish spines in *M. vassarti* new species. Finally, *Muricopsis taupini* from the Galapagos (Figures 52-53) is different in having a smaller shell with a lower spire, lower columellar folds and apertural denticles, a shorter siphonal canal and blunt, blackish brown knobs.

Etymology: Named for André Vassart who collected these specimens in 1997 and 2002, traveling aboard his vessel LA BOUDEUSE.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am very grateful to Jose and Marcus Coltro, Brazil, who sent me the *Favartia* specimens for study a few years ago, to Ellen Strong, National Museum of Natural History, Washington, DC, USA, for the permission she gave to use the images from USNM, to Manuel Caballer (MNHN) who provided the images of the MNHN holotype of *Muricopsis taupini* (E-Recolnat Project: ANR-11-INBS-0004), to Emily H. Vokes, Ponchatoula, Louisiana, USA, for permission to reproduce her photo of the holotype of *Favartia glypta*, and as always, to John Wolff, Lancaster, Philadelphia, USA, for checking the English text and for other comments. Many thanks also to the reviewers, Yuri Kantor and Jerry Harasewych for their useful advice.

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Description of two new species (Bivalvia: Vesicomyidae, Verticordiidae) from a cold seep in the South China Sea

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we describe two new deep-sea bivalve species belonging to the families Vesicomyidae and Verticordiidae, respectively. They were collected during a survey of the Haima Methane Seep at the Qiongdongnan Basin on the northwestern slope of the South China Sea, China, at a depth of 1,400 m. *Vesicomya rhombica* new species is small in size and characterized by its rhombic shell shape and a slight furrow on the surface of the posterior shell region, running from the umbo to the postero-vental margin. It is the first species of this genus recorded from Chinese waters. *Spinosipella xui* new species has a long, lamellar posterior lateral tooth on the right valve, 13 strong radial ribs, and conspicuous spines on the shell surface. The latter constitutes one of three species of this genus living in Chinese waters.

Additional Keywords: new species, *Vesicomya*, *Spinosipella*, Vesicomyidae, Verticordiidae, taxonomy, chemosymbiotic environment

INTRODUCTION

Many habitats remain underexplored in the bathyal and abyssal seafloor that draw significant concerns worldwide. Our knowledge of the biodiversity of deep-sea mollusks remains quite limited due to technological difficulties in the access to this perpetually dark world and resulting insufficient sampling, which results in controversial explanations of their fauna, biodiversity, and biogeography (Arbizu and Brix, 2008; Brökeland and George, 2009). With the gradual increase in exploration of the deep-sea, vast numbers of mollusks have been sampled. Reporting newly found species is imperative to understanding the biodiversity of the deep-sea, as accurate identifications and taxonomy are crucial and the foundation for further studies.

The Vesicomyidae Dall and Simpson, 1901 is a deep-sea bivalve family, distributed worldwide from about 100 m to more than 10,000 m depth in the abyssal and hadal zones (Krylova et al., 2018). It has received mounting attention due to its specialized habitat. Most of the members are confined to chemosynthetic communities such as cold seeps, hydrothermal vents, whale carcasses, or other sulphide-rich reducing environments (Krylova and Sahling, 2010; Coan and Valentich-Scott, 2012; Krylova et al., 2018). This family is considered to include two subfamilies, Vesicomyinae Dall and Simpson, 1901 and Pliocardiinae Woodring, 1925, totaling more than 125 Recent species (Krylova and Sahling, 2010; Decker et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2017; Krylova et al., 2018). These two subfamilies are well-supported and widely accepted (Krylova and Sahling, 2010; Valdés et al., 2012). *Vesicomya* Dall, 1886 is the only genus of Vesicomyinae; included species are generally small in size and mainly inhabit abyssal plains or hadal trenches. Krylova and Sahling (2010) assigned 18 species to this genus. But as it was not delimited well, *Vesicomya* had long been employed as a catchall taxon, to which many vesicomyids from hydrothermal vent and cold seep ecosystems were originally or subsequently assigned, sometimes rather incongruently (Coan et al., 2000).

The name *Vesicomya* is often used between quotation marks when the taxonomic status of a vesicomyine species is not well resolved, e.g., as in “*Vesicomya*” *filatovae* Krylova and Kamenev, 2015 (Krylova et al. 2015). Conversely, some of its included species were assigned even to different families or genera such as *Kelliella* or *Callocardia*. Krylova et al. (2018) re-clarified the relationship between *Vesicomya* and *Kelliella*, and assigned 15 species to *Vesicomya*.

The family Verticordiidae Stoliczka, 1870 is another common group of deep-water bivalves. Most members are mobile infaunal carnivores that exclusively inhabit the deep-sea (Coan and Valentich-Scott, 2012). At least 11 genera and more than 90 species have been reported for

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this family (Huber, 2010). *Spinosipella* Iredale, 1930 is one of species-poor genus of verticordiids. Simone and Cunha (2008) comprehensively revised this genus by studying both conchological and anatomical characters. Nowadays, five valid species are assigned to the genus: *S. acuticostata* (Philippi, 1844), *S. agnes* Simone and Cunha, 2008, *S. tinga* Simone and Cunha, 2008, *S. deshayesiana* (P. Fischer, 1862) (= *Verticordia japonica* A. Adams, 1862 = *Verticordia ericia* Hedley, 1911), and *S. costeminens* (Poutiers, 1981).

Vesicomyids are well represented in the northern Pacific (Krylova and Janssen, 2006), but the biodiversity in Chinese waters is poorly known. Up to now, only two large species of this family were described from the South China Sea, *Laubiericoncha nanshaensis* (Xu and Shen, 1991) and *Archivesica marissinica* (Chen, Okutani, Liang and Qiu, 2018). However, no *Vesicomya* species were found. Regarding Verticordiidae, a total of 6 species have been reported from Chinese waters (Liu, 2008). Among them, two species belong to genus *Spinosipella* i.e., *S. deshayesiana* and *S. costeminens* (Liu, 2008; Xu and Zhang, 2008).

During the recent survey HYIV20150402 to the Qiongdongnan Basin on the northwestern slope of the South China Sea by R/V HAI YANG SI HAO, a new vesicomyid belonging to *Vesicomya* and a new verticordiid belonging to *Spinosipella* were collected. Herein, we described them as new.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Specimens studied were collected by bottom trawling with RV HAI YANG SI HAO from recently discovered Haima Methane Seep about 1,400 m depth off southern Hainan Island in the northern sector of the South China Sea, April 2nd, 2015 (Liang et al., 2017; Feng et al., 2018). Together with the specimens, this trawling also sampled 134 individuals of *Bathymodiolus platifrons* Hashimoto and Okutani, 1994, and 9 of *Archivesica marissinica* (Chen, Okutani, Liang and Qiu, 2018), which are typical vent and seep specialized chemosymbiotic bivalves. Figure 1 shows a map of the collecting site.

Shells were observed using a Zeiss Discovery V12 stereo microscope. Photographs were taken using a Cannon EOS6D camera or a Zeiss AxioCam 503 digital camera coupled to the microscope. Measurements were made with a Vernier caliper to the nearest 0.1 mm. All specimens were collected dead and dried by Dr. Xuebao He, so hindering examination of soft parts. Type specimens are deposited in the Third Institute of Oceanography, Ministry of Natural Resources, Xiamen, China. The terminology for morphological description and hinge teeth of Vesicomyidae was used following Cox (1969), von Cosel and Salas (2001), Krylova and Janssen (2006), Amano and Kiel (2007). Abbreviations: SL, shell length; SH, shell height; SW, shell width.

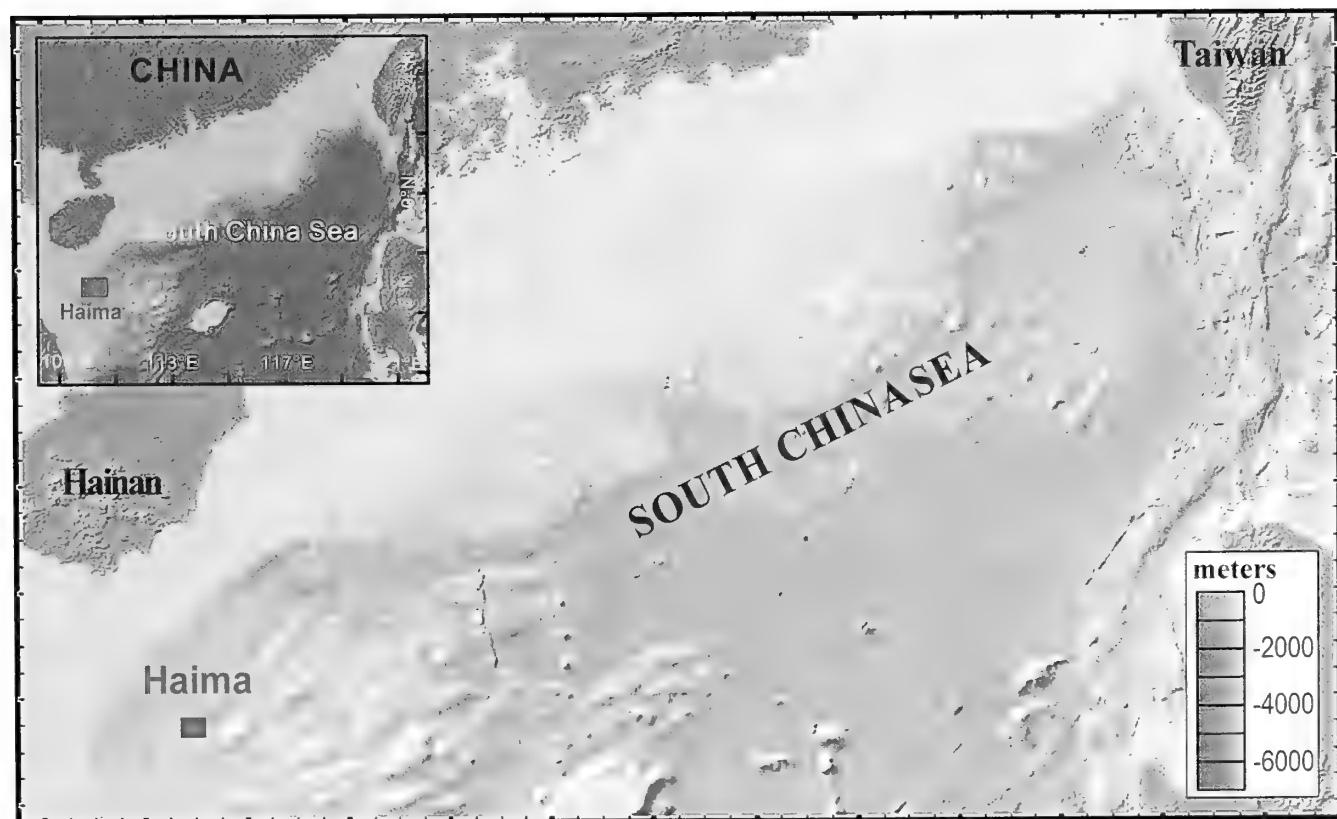


Figure 1. Map of the South China Sea showing the location of Haima Methane Seep, indicated by a rectangle (modified from Liang et al., 2017).

SYSTEMATICS

Superfamily Glossoidea Gray, 1847 (1840)
 Family Vesicomyidae Dall and Simpson, 1901
 Subfamily Vesicomyinae Dall and Simpson, 1901

Genus *Vesicomya* Dall, 1886

Callocardia (*Vesicomya*) Dall, 1886: 272.

Type Species: *Callocardia atlantica* Smith, 1885 (by original designation).

***Vesicomya rhombica* new species**

(Figures 2-7)

Description: Shell small, 7.10-8.20 mm long, fragile, thin, rhombic in shape, inequilateral, equivalve. Anterior dorsal margin depressed, concave; anterior end evenly rounded; posterior dorsal margin sloping, slightly convex; posterior end faintly angulate; ventral margin long and rather convex. Umbones protruding, ascending; beaks prominent, strongly prosogyrate, situated at the middle of dorsal margin. Surface white, porcellaneous, sculpture of commarginal striae and low regular ribs. Periostracum thin, glossy, translucent. Slight furrow running from umbo to postero-ventral margin present on posterior area of shell. Lunule triangular, sunken, distinct, demarcated by incision. Escutcheon indistinct. Ligament external, opisthodetic, strong, 1/3 length of posterior dorsal margin, attached to nymphs on outer edge of posterior hinge plate. Internal surface of valves white, smooth. Hinge plate narrow. On right valve, anterior cardinal tooth 1 wedge-like, located on ventral margin of hinge plate, its elongated high posterior end located under anterior ramus 3a of posterior cardinal tooth, posterior ramus 3b thicker, radiated posteriorly. On left valve, anterior cardinal tooth long, bifid, V-shaped, with anterior 2a tooth long, along ventral margin of hinge plate, fused with anterior edge of middle 2b tooth; posterior cardinal tooth 4b elongated, parallel to postero-dorsal margin of the shell. Adductor muscle scars distinct, anterior teardrop-shaped, anterior pedal retractor scar small, impressed, located dorsally to and fused with anterior adductor scar; posterior adductor scar reniform, larger than the anterior one; Pallial line without pallial sinus.

Type Material: Holotype: TIO-BTS-MOL-1601 (Sta.QDN31), 1 specimen, SL 8.20 mm, SH 6.60 mm, SW 4.40 mm. Paratype: TIO-BTS- MOL-1602(Sta.QDN31), 1 specimen, SL 7.10 mm, SH 5.60 mm, SW 3.80 mm. All from type locality.

Type Locality: Haima Methane Seep, muddy bottom, about 1,400 m depth off southern Hainan Island in the northern sector of the South China Sea.

Distribution: Known only from type locality.

Etymology: The Latin specific epithet *rhombica* refers to the rhombic shell shape in this species.

Remarks: The new species can be distinguished from other congeners by its rhombic shell shape and a slight furrow at the surface posterior area running from the umbo to the postero-ventral margin. Among the 15 species within this genus assigned by Krylova et al. (2018), seven of them are distributed in the Indo-West Pacific: *Vesicomya galatheae* (Knudsen, 1970), *V. pacifica* (E.A. Smith, 1885), *V. tasmanensis* (Knudsen, 1970), *V. bruuni* Filatova, 1969, *V. sundaensis* (Knudsen, 1970), *V. profundi* Filatova, 1971, and *V. sergeevi* Filatova, 1971 (Krylova et al., 2015). In addition to differences in shell shape, the first five species differ from the new species by the arrangement of the ventral anterior cardinal tooth 1 and anterior ramus 3a on the right valve, which do not overlap. Instead, in the new species, the elongated high posterior end of the cardinal tooth 1 is located under anterior ramus 3a of the posterior cardinal tooth on the right valve. The hinge of the new species is very similar to those of *V. profundi* and *V. sergeevi*, both of which are found in the Kuril-Kamchatka Trench, northwest Pacific (Krylova et al., 2015; Kamenev, 2019). But they differ by their shell shape and sculpture. The shell of *V. profundi* is subcircular in outline, higher, more inflated, and shorter in its anterior and posterior ends, with the umbo protruding. Both the new species and *V. sergeevi* have less inflated and longer shells. But *V. sergeevi* is ovoid in shape, has less conspicuous commarginal ribs, and lacks the furrow on the posterior area. *Vesicomya indica* (Knudsen, 1970), first found in the central Indian Ocean, was also reported from southern Shikoku, Japan (Tsuchida, 1994; Higo, Callomon and Goto, 1999). But from the published figures (Tsuchida 1994: 78, fig. 3, pl. 3, figs. 1, 2), we can ascertain that it is definitely not *V. indica*. Another species from Japan, *V. katsuae* Kuroda, 1952 was assigned to *Waisiuconcha* by Higo, Callomon, and Goto (1999: 2001). Krylova and Janssen (2006) observed that it should be excluded from the genus *Waisiuconcha*. Huber (2010) allocated the species in the genus *Isorropodon*. Okutani (2017) still included the species in *Vesicomya*, as originally determined by Kuroda (1952). However, from the type figure (Kuroda, 1952: 4, text-figs. 5-9; Higo, Callomon and Goto, 2001: 174, fig. B1099), we believe that it may belong to the genus *Pliocardia*, pending further confirmation.

Superfamily Verticordioidea Stoliczka, 1870

Family Verticordiidae Stoliczka, 1870

Genus *Spinosipella* Iredale, 1930

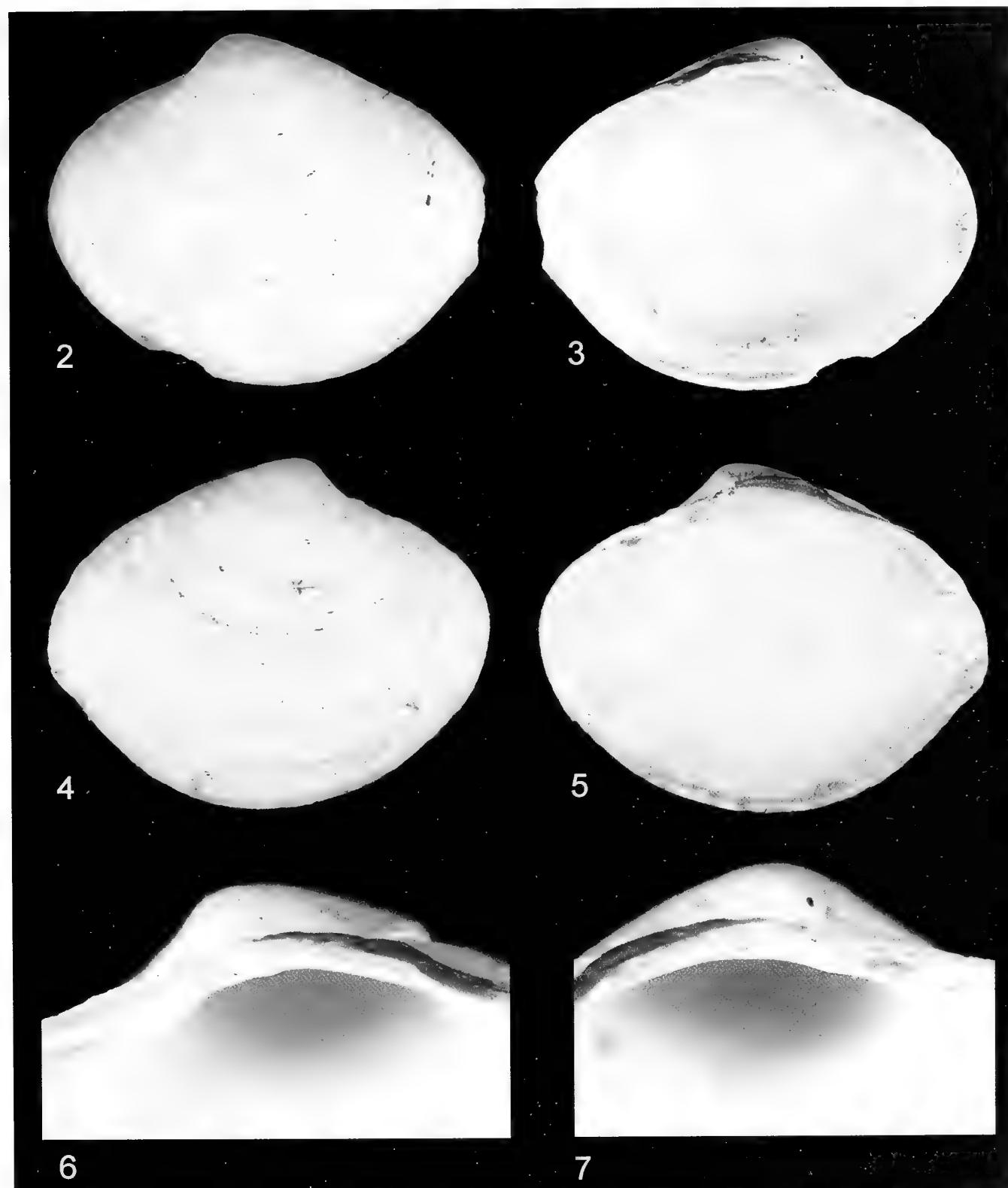
Spinosipella Iredale, 1930: 388

Type Species: *Verticordia ericia* Hedley, 1911 (original designation).

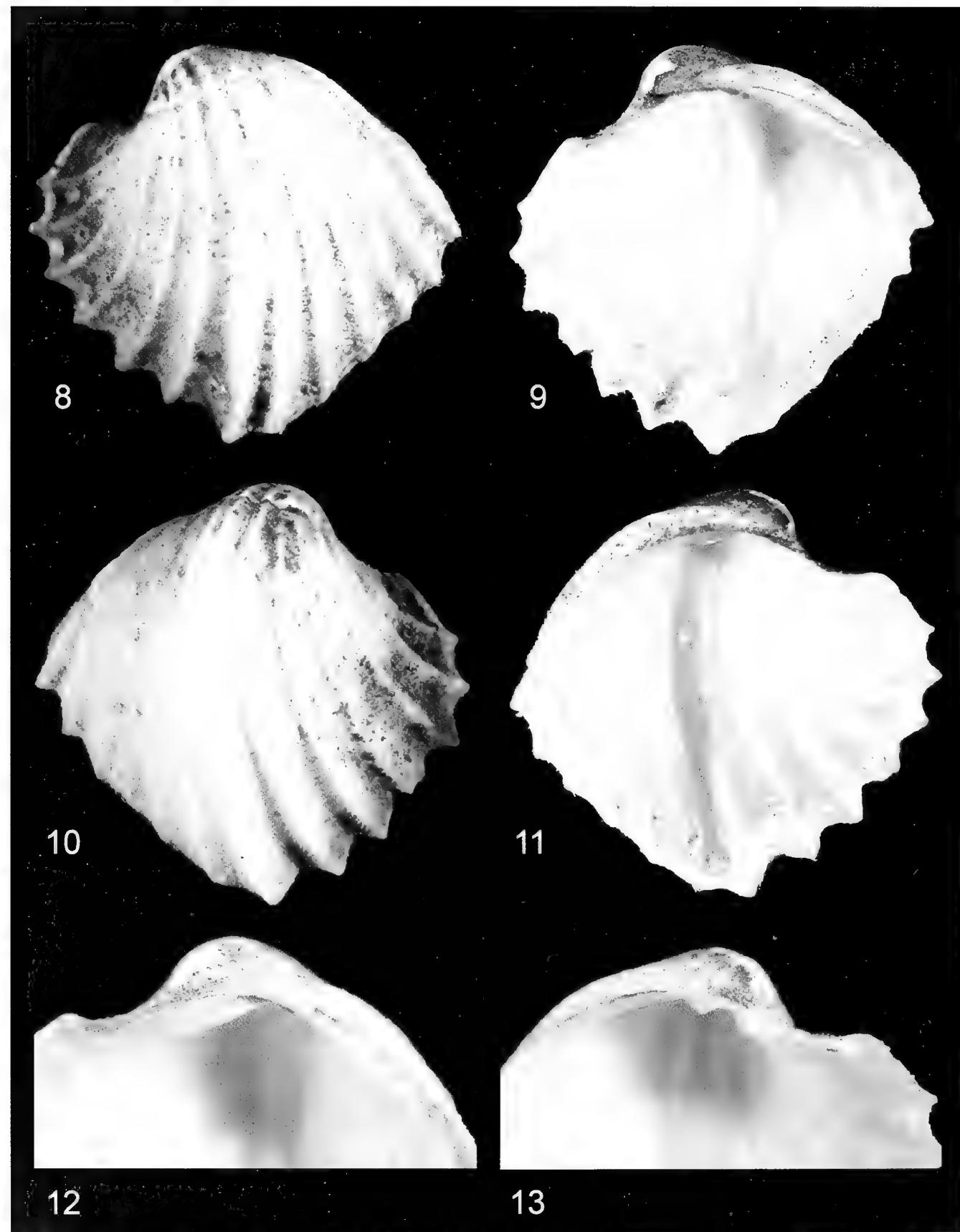
***Spinosipella xui* new species**

(Figure 8-13)

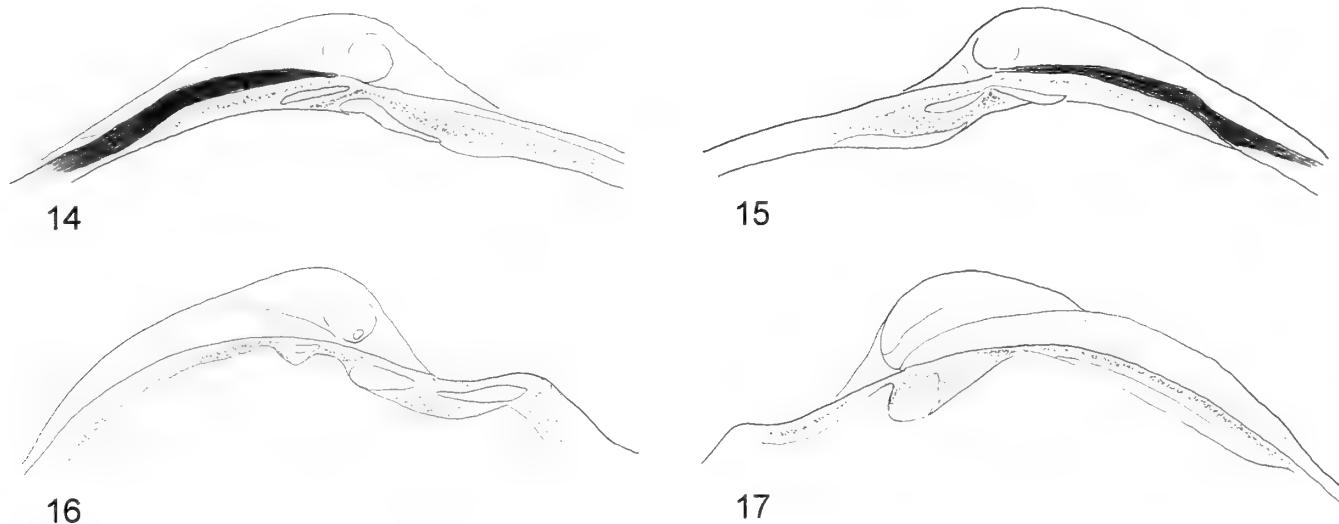
Description: Shell small, 4.7 mm in length, inflated, quadrangular or square-rhombus shaped, inequilateral, weakly coiled, inequivalve, right valve slightly larger and



Figures 2–7. *Vesicomya rhombica* new species, holotype (TIO-BTS-MOL-1601). **2.** Exterior of left valve. **3.** Interior of left valve. **4.** Exterior of right valve. **5.** Interior of right valve. **6–7.** Details of hinges. **6.** Right valve. **7.** Left valve.



Figures 8-13. *Spinosipella xui* new species, holotype (TIO-BTS-MOL-1701). **8.** Exterior of left valve. **9.** Interior of left valve. **10.** Exterior of right valve. **11.** Interior of right valve. **12-13.** Details of hinges. **12.** Right valve. **13.** Left valve.



Figures 14–17. Semi-schematic line drawings of hinge plates. **14.** Left valve of *Vesicomya rhombica* new species. **15.** Right valve of *Vesicomya rhombica* new species. **16.** Left valve of *Spinosipella xui* new species. **17.** Right valve of *Spinosipella xui* new species.

overlapping left one, not gaping. Color chalky-white. Antero-dorsal margin short, depressed-concave; postero-dorsal margin sloping, slightly convex, about twice wider than anterior one; anterior and posterior ends forming abrupt right angles, with posterior one more protruded; ventral margin zigzag crenulated, rather convex, with antero-ventral margin almost vertical to postero-ventral, tips of zigzag coinciding with tips of each surface rib, tips corresponding to concavity of opposite valve; antero-dorsal margin almost parallel to postero-ventral, and postero-dorsal margin parallel to antero-ventral, forming lozenge-shaped shell outline. Umbones coiled, convex, projected, divergent, prosogyrate, situated in middle of dorsal margin. Outer surface with minute, opaque granulations forming irregular mosaics. Sculptured by strong, arched, widely spaced, 13 radial ribs triangular in cross-section, forming broad undulations on surfaces of valves and producing deeply plicate margins;

largest rib on middle forming prominent keel, dividing valve into anterior and posterior regions each with 6 ribs; ribs gradually becoming smaller from middle to shell ends. Lunule cordate, sunken, distinct, demarcated by incision. Escutcheon obscure, long, lanceolate. Internal surface of valves glossy, nacreous, white, iridescent, with undulations corresponding to ribs on external surface. Hinge plate narrow, under lunule. On right valve, hinge with large, stubby, tall, conical cardinal tooth, and long lamellar posterior lateral tooth parallel to postero-dorsal shell margin. On left valve, anterior cardinal tooth stout, long, extending along antero-dorsal margin, almost connected to smaller anterior lateral tooth under lunule; posterior cardinal tooth low, short and wedge-shaped; shallow socket between cardinal teeth, restricted to dorsal surface, and corresponding to the cardinal tooth of right valve. Anterior adductor muscle scars distinct, reniform, posterior adductor muscle scars elongate-ovate.

Ligament opisthodetic, weak, almost imperceptible, nearly fused to periostracum along dorsal hinge margin; resilium brown, posterior to cardinal teeth. Pallial line very poorly defined.

Type Material: Holotype: TIO-BTS-MOL-1701 (Sta.QDN31) SL 4.7 mm, SH 4.3 mm, SW 3.8 mm.

Type Locality: Haima Methane Seep, muddy bottom, about 1,400 m depth off southern Hainan Island in the northern sector of the South China Sea.

Distribution: Known from the type locality.

Etymology: This species is dedicated to Prof. Fengshan Xu for his great contributions to Chinese malacology.

Remarks: The new species is allocated to the genus *Spinosipella* Iredale, 1930, due to its outline, a single strong cardinal tooth in the right valve, and a shallow socket in the left valve corresponding to the cardinal tooth of the right valve (Poutiers and Bernard, 1995). It is also noteworthy that the new species is different from other species of the genus in having a long thin lamellar posterior lateral tooth on the right valve. A long posterior lateral tooth on the right valve is also one of the characters typical of the genus *Trigonulina* d'Orbigny, 1853 (Poutiers and Bernard, 1995; Coan and Valentich-Scott, 2012). However, the lunule of the new species is sunken, distinct, and well-impressed, but not so deeply depressed as the two species of *Trigonulina*, i.e., the eastern Pacific *Trigonulina novemcostata* (A. Adams and Reeve, 1850) [= *Trigonulina pacifica* Jung, 1996= *Trigonulina hancocki* (Bernard, 1969)] and the western Atlantic *Trigonulina ornata* d'Orbigny, 1853. The lunules of these two species are deeply incised into the shell and overhung by umbones, and the hinge plates thickened. At the moment, only two species of *Spinosipella* with a tropical West

Pacific distribution are known (Simone and Cunha, 2008; Xu and Zhang, 2008). The number of radial ribs in the new species is much less than these two similar species, which have about 18–19 and 16–17 ribs, respectively. The new species has only 13 radial ribs, which is comparable to the Mediterranean *S. acuticostata* (Simone and Cunha, 2008). But *S. acuticostata* is higher than the new species, with stronger ribs and more prominent spines on the surface.

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